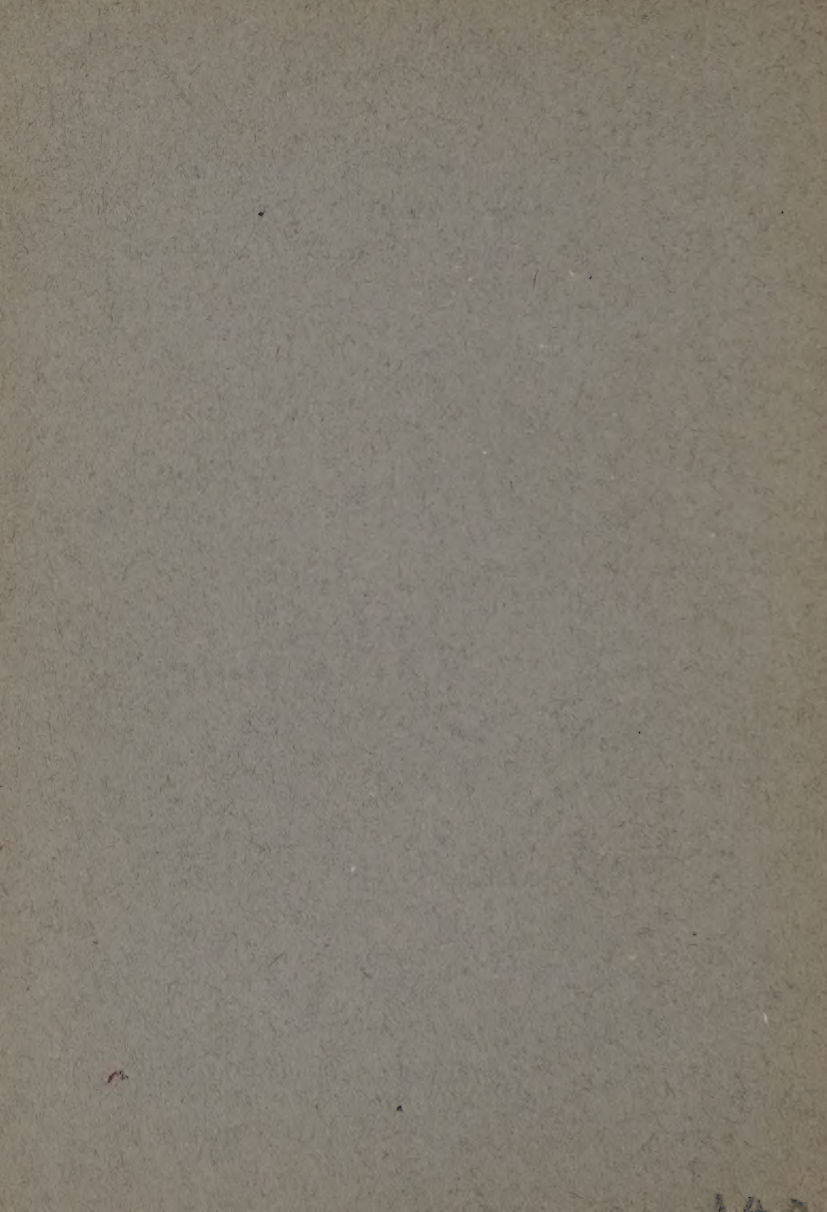


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PRESENTED BY Professor G.W.Knight





# CENTENNIAL SOUVENIR.

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## THE OHIO VALLEY

### A SKETCH

OF ITS PRIMITIVE INHABITANTS, ANTIQUITIES  
DISCOVERY, AND SETTLEMENT.

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BY

WM. H. WETZ

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CINCINNATI, O.:

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1888

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## PREFATORY.

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IF the following few pages will give the people of the Ohio valley, and also those others who may take an interest in our history, but a faint notion of that historic thread which runs through the many interesting and thrilling events connected with the discovery, settlement and present occupation of this valley and also give them a glimpse into prehistoric times, the aim of this sketch will be fully reached. If, however, they should do so much as awaken in one person a real desire for a deeper study of our history, it would be more than we dared hope for, but that which of all is most desired.

Those works that have been especially useful in the preparation of this sketch are: MacLean, "Mound Builders;" Clarke, "Prehistoric Remains on the Site of Cincinnati;" Schoolcraft, Indians; and "Western Annals."

THE AUTHOR.

JUNE 14, 1888.



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# THE OHIO VALLEY.

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## CHAPTER I.

### THE MOUND BUILDERS.

BEFORE taking up the subject proper of this chapter, which is to treat of the origin and character of that prehistoric race of people which, from its characteristic monuments, has received the name Mound Builders, we would like merely to direct the attention of the reader to the antiquity of man in the United States as treated of in geology. This, though it be but the mere mention of some of the leading facts, we would not dare overlook in a chapter on the prehistoric races of this as well as other countries; for evidence is quite clear on this point, and it has been shown that the race we call Mound Builders was by no means the first race that inhabited this country. As one writer says: "Multitudes of nations have arisen upon the American Continent and have disappeared, leaving no trace but ruins, mounds, a few wrought stones, or fragments of pottery."

The geological evidences of the antiquity of man may be briefly stated as follows: Flint implements and weapons of various kinds as well as human skulls, and even entire skeletons, have been found imbedded in deposits which belong to the two geologic ages which immediately precede the present, or the age which is distinctively designated as the age of man. The remains of man, such as weapons and parts of skeletons, have been found associated with the bones of animals, both in deposits and in caves. These prehistoric animals, whose geologic age is well marked, were very much like many that exist at the present time, but much larger. They were the mastodon, a large elephant, the megatherium, the mylodon, a jaguar larger than that of the present day, and a large bear. These remains of both men and animals are found so associated as distinctly to indicate frequent conflict between them, man sometimes being vanquished, indeed, but more frequently, on account of his superior intelligence and skill, the conqueror. These conflicts must have been very severe, and many times hopeless for these early men, when we consider the poor means of defense they had—a few weapons, such as hatchets and knives, rudely fashioned out of

stone. There is only one thing more in this connection which we desire to mention, and that is the evidence of the existence of man before the Glacial period, or, the great ice age. This age was characterized by a climate severely cold and by the formation of immense glaciers, which traveled slowly from north to south, destroying all the immense forests, breaking off and carrying with them huge rocks, and driving both men and beasts before them and compelling them to seek in the south a more comfortable dwelling place. From what remote period this glaciation dates, or how long it continued, can scarcely be imagined. All we know is from the traces it has left, and there are also similar facts to show that when this period came to an end, inundations characterized by violent torrents, modified the valleys and rivers and gave them about the appearance they have to-day. In these glacial deposits various human relics have been found, and indications are that they were originally thus deposited. Numerous stone implements and weapons have been discovered, and also charred wood and ashes, in such a manner as to indicate that fires had been built by man to alleviate to some extent his sufferings from the intense cold. Of the character of these people

absolutely nothing can be said or even imagined ; neither can any thing in this regard be known of those other races which immediately followed the first inhabitants. Nothing can be established beyond the bare fact that human beings existed in those very early times. The investigations made in caves and in the great shell-heaps found both on our eastern and western coasts, indicate that these races, which likely succeeded the first inhabitants immediately, were very different in their habits of life. Instead of being savages roaming about from place to place, they seemed to have dwelled in communities, and undoubtedly developed a low form of society. Their industry is shown by the discovery of bone needles, with which they made their clothes, likely from skins of animals.

Thus, after presenting this near outline of the facts showing the great antiquity of man in this country, we come now to our subject, which is a race of people who create in us a deeper interest, because the number and variety of their monuments and relics give us some insight into their character, and concerning whose civilization and arts we can speak in positive terms. This race is the Mound Builders.

When this country became sufficiently settled

by the race which is still in possession of it, the existence of strange structures, such as high mounds of various forms and sizes, walls and enclosures, mostly out of earth, forced themselves upon the attention of those people living near them. The form, as well as other marks which these works bore, showed to these observers that they could not be otherwise than of artificial construction. They at once attributed them to human agencies, as there were very few reasons indeed in favor of classifying them as natural edifices. The real builders of these remarkable structures being of necessity entirely unknown to these first observers, the only race to whom they could attribute them was the Indian. Even now, with persons not versed in the literature on this subject, these structures go by the name of Indian mounds. It was not until, perhaps by circumstances purely accidental, that these mounds became known to contain relics of various sorts, which led to a thorough and scientific investigation which showed that these works were not built by the red man, but by a race of people in every respect superior to the Indian.

This great nation of antiquity, as is shown by the geographical distribution of their works, occupied the whole of the United States. The

central portion of this country, however, was by far more densely populated than any other part. Here were the great centers of their civilization. The valley of the Ohio and those of some of its tributaries together formed the territory of one of the greatest and most remarkable of these centers, as shown by the number, variety and complexity of the works.

The question now arises: was there unity among this ancient people: did they constitute one single nation under one and the same government, or were there several nations, under several governments, with different customs and pursuits, notwithstanding that they may have been similar in some general characteristics? Different authors have given different answers to this question. Some seem to think that there was but one nation and one government and support their opinions by various minor facts in connection with the monuments; but the greater number of the best authorities think that there were different nations or tribes with different characteristics and pursuits. One author makes three nations: 1. The *Agricultural Nation* which occupied the Ohio valley. 2. The *Military Nation* on the Lakes, and 3. The *Effigy Nation* between the Mississippi and Lake Michigan. This is not

credited by another writer because, as the latter says, fortifications are found as far south as the Ohio River; but it is evident that the Agricultural Nation would find it necessary to fortify itself against the Military Nation of the North. J. P. McLean, in his work on the Mound Builders, calls attention to the following facts. He says: "A map of the State of Ohio containing the earth-works would indicate three distinct things. 1. A belt of country running through Central Ohio from east to west, entirely devoid of ancient earth-works. 2. South of this belt are numerous military and religious enclosures. 3. North of the belt numerous military but no sacred enclosures. These works are not so formidable as those of Southern Ohio. The soil of Central Ohio is productive, and hence there must have been some very strong reason for not occupying it. Again, if the same nations occupied Northern Ohio that occupied the southern part, we would certainly meet with sacred enclosures. It appears that there were in the State two distinct nations, having different sympathies, and on account of this disparity existing between them they placed themselves wide apart, being separated by the belt of neutral territory."

"If the mounds of Wisconsin belong to the

same era as the mounds of Ohio, we have another distinct nation. The animal mounds of Wisconsin are very numerous, while in Ohio the animal mounds probably do not number half a dozen, and the greatest of all these is entirely separated from any of the enclosures. If the sympathies of these nations were the same it would appear that vast numbers of this class of mounds should be found in Ohio."

The fact that the enclosures of the northern nation are less formidable than those of the southern may signify to us that this warlike and military nation was in very little danger of invasion by any other nation. Its strength was in its armies, while that of the southern, peaceful agricultural nation had to be in superior fortifications. When we take into consideration the various circumstances relating to the structure and position of many of the southern fortifications and also of the large and high mounds of observation and the views they command over the fortifications and also over other mounds which command other more distant fortifications, it is quite plain that this southern nation was compelled, by these strong fortifications and high signal mounds, to protect itself against a very formidable enemy which threatened it on the north and east.

As it seems to be tolerably clear that this ancient people was divided into several nations or at least tribes, it next becomes necessary to investigate them further as a people, and see what can be known of the intelligence, civilization, character, government, arts, etc.

In studying this wonderful people with reference to the above characteristics, we will direct our attention more especially to that nation which occupied the Ohio valley for the reason that they concern us more particularly in this work and they also seem to us to have possessed a culture superior to that of the other nations belonging to the same race. This will not, however, exclude an occasional reference to facts of interest that may be found among those other nations on the north and west.

A careful survey of the various earth-works, such as enclosures of different kinds as well as a close examination of relics such as weapons, implements, sculptured images and tablets, impress us first of all with the intelligence of this people. As direct marks and indications of the intelligence we would refer to the complexity and symmetry of many of their earthworks. In many of them a wide and accurate knowledge of geometry is undoubtedly displayed. Back of this lies also

the power to apprehend the *abstract principles* of mathematics, especially of geometry. This geometrical skill is particularly manifest when we notice the regularity of the various enclosures. A writer who does not on the whole take the most hopeful view of the Mound Builders, says, nevertheless, of these enclosures: "They are always of regular form, square or circular, more rarely elliptical or polygonal. All the figures are perfect, all the angles are right angles, all the sides are equal. The men who built them certainly understood the art of measuring surfaces and angles." To show their skill in measuring surfaces, a number of examples may be cited. The group at Newark, Ohio, "includes an octagon covering an area of fifty acres, a square of twenty acres, and two circles of twenty and thirty acres, respectively." At Hopeton, Ross County, Ohio, there is a circle and a square containing each exactly twenty acres. Many more such examples might be cited to show their skill in this direction. We have good reasons to believe that they had plans according to which they worked in the erection of these extensive and complicated structures, and it is not improbable that they also had instruments. Very many marks, indicative of their intelligence, will also appear as inferences.

from the other characteristics which remain yet to be considered.

The degree of civilization of a nation is indicated by its government, its various industries, and its military discipline. Culture is a wider term, and would include also its moral, social and religious life. While it is impossible to have any exact knowledge of the nation in question in regard to civilization and culture, and while we cannot on this account fix their exact condition, yet we find indications pointing at least to a degree of development in these various directions. Many of the best writers on this subject seem to think that the government of this ancient people was despotic, and probably like that of the ancient Mexicans and many other ancient nations, it was a government of the priesthood. They think that, judging from the vastness of many of the structures which remain, the government must have been a powerful one in order to exact a sufficient amount of labor from a population to erect these mighty monuments. Considering that the population was very numerous and that a great number of laborers were required to erect these structures, it is reasonable to suppose that the government was not one of mere force, but one

with a religious power which laid hold on the destinies of the subjects.

Of their military skill very little can be said in detail. It can, however, be easily seen by their fortifications that they possessed great skill in this direction. They were powerful in defence, and this indicates power also in the assailing armies. Whether these forts were altogether used as a protection against warlike neighboring tribes, or against an invading nation which finally conquered and supplanted them, will perhaps become clear further on.

As has already been stated, that tribe of Mound Builders which occupied the Ohio valley and the valleys of some of its tributaries was an agricultural tribe. These fertile valleys were immense districts where all sorts of produce was cultivated. Judging from various things, their system of farming must have been carried on with considerable method, as were all their industries. As the population was very numerous, it is but reasonable to suppose that nothing but the strictest adherence to a good method in this respect would result in a sufficient supply of food for the people, a great number of whom must have been occupied for a long time in constructing and keeping up these immense monuments

of various sorts. It is very evident that they could not depend upon the natural and spontaneous yield of the soil, and upon the uncertain and perhaps meagre chances of hunting and fishing. With regard to this J. P. MacLean says: "It has been estimated that in the hunter state it requires 50,000 acres for the support of one hunter, and as there are twenty-five millions, four hundred and forty-six thousand, seven hundred and seven acres in Ohio, we then could have, upon the above estimate, but 509 able-bodied men supported alone by the flesh of wild beasts in Ohio."

The chief product of their agricultural toil was undoubtedly maize, as it also was their staple article of food. The district in which they lived was especially adapted to its cultivation. The above quoted author says: "No other plant was better adapted to their use, for it is highly prolific, easily cultivated, and the product of a single acre is sufficient to sustain for an entire year about 200 able-bodied men." They also cultivated other grain besides this. Such plants as would furnish fibrous substance suitable for the making of clothes, must have been cultivated also. The vast number of pipes of various kinds show that they were "sturdy smokers," and this

would necessitate the cultivation of tobacco. It is also quite probable that, as the potato and tomato are native to America, large quantities of these were cultivated.

They were also skilled in the various mechanical arts, such as the manufacture of implements of various kinds, tools, as also of ornaments. There are also evidences that they understood the art of bridging, at least to some degree, as there are indications that certain small streams were spanned by bridge-like structures. The making of sun-dried brick was very extensively carried on by them. Many of their mounds and the walls of fortifications were faced with these brick. Mining was one of their great industries, and quite a number of metals as well as mica and slate were produced and used by them in the manufacture of implements and ornaments. They also understood copper smelting and molding. A great many of their weapons, implements and ornaments, such as axes, hatchets, hammers, badges of authority, etc., were made of stone by grinding or rubbing until they had the desired shape. "The flint instruments," says MacLean, are not made by blows, but by pressure. By striking the flint it will be broken irregularly, but by strong pressure the flakes are easily disen-

gaged." Their copper implements and also some ornaments made of this metal were all hammered out cold. They obtained their copper mainly from the extensive mines on the shores of Lake Superior ; and this seems to show that they were also traders. They also understood the making of cloth of various kinds, as is shown by fragments which have been taken from mounds.

They have left many evidences, such as vases, stone images, idols, "life-sized human masks in hard stone," and many minor works to show that they understood the art of sculpture. Of their methods of executing these a writer says : " It was by patient labor, rubbing one stone against another, that the Mound Builders executed their sculptures. The Mexicans and Peruvians employed the same processes, after having first rough-hewn the stone with the help of obsidian implements. It was natural that the owners of objects so laboriously obtained should attach very great value to them, and we do, in fact, meet with pipes mended with extreme care. The process was very simple : holes were pierced at the edges of the fracture, and little rivets of wood or copper were placed in them to keep the pieces together."

While the Mound Builders are thus shown to have possessed no inconsiderable civilization, yet

because of the absence of a written language, we can hardly call them a cultured people except in a quite ordinary degree. It may be that if we had some insight into their language, it would reveal much that would cause us to assign them a higher place in every way.

It is quite fair to presume that they had their social enjoyments, amusements, and games of various sorts. These may have consisted mainly in trials of skill in different things. They may have been exhibitions of skill in arms; skill in shooting with bow and arrows, in using the lance, etc. It is also known that they had other games in which they frequently indulged.

They may also be called a religious people in that they had certain forms of worship, as indicated by some of the enclosures and idols which have been found. All nations, however low in the scale of civilization, have some form of worship or entertain some notion of the supernatural. The form which the intellect gives to the idea may and always does differ in different nations, but all the forms rest on the same essential idea. Quite frequently the various powers of nature are objects of worship, and this was more than likely true of the Mound Builders. Some of their great mounds, which are now designated as tem-

ple mounds, were erected for the worship of the sun or the moon. We will quote here again from the author above mentioned, J. P. MacLean, who says: "Upon these (temple) mounds were erected other structures made of wood, and in them the perpetual fires burned by day and by night. If the so-called altar-mounds were places of sacrifice, then more light is thrown upon this subject, and in imagination we may behold strange and revolting rites. Upon these altars, then, were offered up their most precious ornaments, and the most skillful works of their hands. No gift was too costly, none too highly esteemed. Their most elaborately carved pipes, their garments woven with patient toil, their precious materials brought from long distances, were freely offered to appease the wrath of their deities. Nor is this all. Around these altars the priesthood assembled, and with strange songs, marched in solemn procession, while one or more of their number offered up a human being as a sacrifice. Not one, but many of their own nation, or some poor victims taken in war, were condemned at once to pour out their blood in obedience to the forms of a superstitious and sanguinary religion."

From the existence of large serpent mounds and certain other representations of serpents,

some archæologists have supposed that they also worshiped the serpent. In the same way certain images of human beings which have been found, have been taken to be idols, but both of these suppositions are unsupported by the proper evidence.

Of what is really meant by the character of the Mound Builders, nothing can be directly known, but must be inferred from other facts. A great deal has already been brought out in the preceding pages, and only a few more things regarding them remain yet to be shown.

The manner in which they disposed of their dead may be of sufficient interest to be briefly considered, and may give us some additional insight into their characters. Their forms of burial were quite numerous, including almost all known forms. As man everywhere does, so the Mound Builders also showed great respect for the dead bodies of their friends. It is said that "the most numerous mounds are those which rise from graves." These mounds, which are met with all over the United States, resemble each other in many respects, and this indicates that the different nations or tribes, however dissimilar in other important respects, had like funeral observances and great respect for their dead. They placed

the bodies of their dead in various positions—extended horizontally and also doubled up. There are numerous instances to show that in some cases they burned their dead. It can, however, not be determined under what circumstances these different rites were employed, or what customs governed them. The burning was done by building large fires upon the bodies, which were first covered with clay or stones.

There is some evidence that goes to show that some of the races of Mound Builders, and perhaps all, to some degree practiced cannibalism. This is shown beyond all doubt of those races which inhabited Florida, and also those of New England. These were, however, very much lower, and perhaps much earlier races than those who inhabited the Ohio valley, and, in fact, the whole of the central part of the United States. The evidences of cannibalism among the race that occupied this valley are very rare, but if the ancient Mexicans, who were much higher in civilization and a much later people, were in the habit of eating human flesh at their war-feasts, it is not very improbable that the Mound Builders of this part of the country had a similar custom.

Very little can be said as to the general appearance of the Mound Builders, as evidence of this

kind must, naturally, be wanting. Only a few very general outlines in this particular can be drawn. Most of the skulls found indicate a low type and small brain capacity. Skeletons that have been found are of different sizes. A skeleton from a stone grave in Tennessee measured seven feet; one from Fort Wayne, five feet eleven inches; and two skeletons, one from Utah and the other from Michigan, measured more than six feet. It is the opinion of some that these men were of ordinary size. We also gain some knowledge as to their appearance from the carved and sculptured images they have left us, though some seem to think these are perhaps imitations which are as imperfect as their representations of the various animals and birds, yet we undoubtedly have the main outlines. We will be safe in regarding the Mound Builder as a man of medium size, with a small cranium, a low receding forehead, which was much narrower at the top than at the base, high cheek-bones, prominent brows, and large and prominent jaws. Their faces were short and broad, and their eyes were rather large. Just what their complexion was we cannot tell, but it was evidently dark. They may be regarded as resembling the Indian

slightly, but they resembled the ancient Mexican more closely.

Having thus far studied some of the leading characteristics of this remarkable and ancient people, it would be of some interest to know something of their origin. Who were they? Whence did they come? How long did they occupy this country? What finally became of them? These are questions which naturally suggest themselves to almost any reader. These are very important and intensely interesting questions, but it is extremely difficult, if not altogether impossible, to obtain a satisfactory answer to them.

In regard to the origin of this people, two questions suggest themselves. Did they originate in this country, or did they migrate from some other country? If we say that the Mound Builders, or in fact any of the American races originated here, then we assert by so doing the diversity of the origin of the human race, deny the unity of the race, are opposed by the various sciences which deal with these problems, and set ourselves at variance with the best scientific minds that have ever dealt with these questions. If, therefore, we cannot say that this race had its origin in the New World, we are compelled to

answer the second question in the affirmative, and say they came from some older country. We are now led to inquire what other country they inhabited before they came here, and by what means and where they entered the country. Here is where we meet with the real mystery. A great many sources of evidence have been sought and consulted, and numerous theories have been propounded, but the mystery is still unsolved. Indian traditions have been consulted, but these do not help us much, as they seem to be conflicting, for some Indian tribes possessed traditions to the effect that the Mound Builders were a distinct race, while other tribes had traditions saying that these mounds and enclosures were built by the ancestors of the Indians. It has also been shown that the knowledge of very important events has been lost entirely among them in the course of a few centuries, and that no traditions relative to the events were preserved.

Quite numerous have been the theories as to how and where man entered this continent. One hypothesis is that man originally came from Asia and entered the country at Behring Straits, and another would have them entering at the western coast of South America. A great many eminent men favor this latter theory. Some investigators

seem to think that judging from the manner in which the earthworks in their various grades occur, the ancient Americans must have entered in the region of the gulf or the southeastern part of the United States. This suggests what may be called the Atlantian theory. Plato, the celebrated Greek philosopher, described an island which was called Atlantis, and existed in very ancient times. This island is said to have disappeared, sinking into the ocean which surrounded it. It was for a long time thought that this was only an ideal creation by the philosopher, but some modern scholars have taken the matter up again and seem to be able to show that it was not fiction but fact, and have located this island somewhere in the Atlantic Ocean, east of this continent. It is thought, upon ground of this theory, that our ancient Americans came from this wonderful island either at, or before its destruction.

The most plausible theory seems to us to be that of President Warren, of Boston University. It is based upon a very wide range of evidence. He shows from various physical facts as well as from traditions of various nations, that in all probability the human race had its cradle in the extreme north. In fact, he places this land, which was the long-sought-for cradle of the race—the

earthly paradise, at the north pole. The theory comes to us well supported by fact, and seems to us very plausible indeed. There are traditions which some of our northern Indians are said to have preserved, and these say that their ancestors came from the north, far beyond the Great Lakes. The ancient Mexicans also claim to have come from the north. Thus it is only in a very general way that we can indicate the probable origin of the race we have been describing.

The question regarding the antiquity of the Mound Builders is also one of great difficulty. From various sources it appears, however, that they lived here a great many centuries ago, and from the magnitude of their earthworks, it appears that they occupied this country for a considerable length of time. One of the evidences of the great antiquity of their works is the fact that when first discovered they were covered by very dense forests, some of the trees found growing on these earthworks measuring as much as twenty-three feet in circumference. Another evidence of their great antiquity is the position of the works with reference to the river terraces. "The streams generally show four successive terraces, which mark four distinct eras of their subsidence. The last, upon which these works

do not occur, must have been the longest in forming, because the excavating power necessarily diminishes as the channels grow deeper. This geological change proves for the mounds a very great antiquity; how long, we could only approximate." The state of extreme decay of the skeletons of the Mound Builders is another evidence of their great antiquity. Skeletons have been found in Europe, which are known to have been buried two thousand years and under less favorable circumstances for their preservation than those of the Mound Builders. This would indicate a greater antiquity for the latter.

There remains yet one question to be considered, and that is: What became of them? We have already called attention to the arrangement of the mounds, particularly by those of observation, and of the fortifications, their strength and position; and we said that these indicate that the Mound Builders had a very strong and formidable enemy to contend with, either in a neighboring warlike tribe, or in an invading race. Their total disappearance seems to indicate that this enemy was a race which made repeated wars upon them for ages, and finally succeeded in conquering and driving them out completely. This expulsion was only from the country north of the

Ohio River. They then occupied the southern states and erected structures far superior to those of their former home. They probably occupied the entire southern country for many centuries and perhaps, until quite recently, comparatively speaking, and it was likely a remnant of this race that the earliest explorers discovered in the south. It has been thought by some, that, on account of the resemblance between them and some of the ancient Mexican races, the Mound Builders, migrating towards the south and steadily advancing in civilization, became the progenitors of some of these races. One thing strange, however, is that these conquerors of the Mound Builders in Ohio, who must have been superior to them in many respects, left no traces whatever of their existence here.

## CHAPTER II.

### ANTIQUITIES.

IN describing the character of the Mound Builders in the foregoing chapter, we found it necessary occasionally to refer to certain earthworks and other relics, which is all they have left us from which to read their wonderful history, but we made no attempt at describing them. A more or less detailed description of these remains shall form the contents of this chapter on antiquities.

These remarkable earthworks most likely escaped the notice of the discoverers and earliest white inhabitants of this country. And if they attracted their attention at all, the thought that they were artificial did not occur to them. Carver, in 1776, and Harte, in 1791, were the first to bring them into public notice. Breckenridge also wrote of them in 1814. The first scientific investigation of them was made by Squire and Davis, 1845 to 1847. The results of this investigation were published by the Smithsonian Institute, and this is said to be still our best guide on the subject.

These earthworks may be divided into two general classes: Mounds and enclosures. We

will direct our attention to the first of these, namely: mounds. These again divide themselves into several different classes, which we will describe in their proper order. This class of structures are very numerous indeed. It has been estimated that in the State of Ohio alone, which seems to have been one of the great centers of this race, there are no less than 10,000 mounds; and if these were in a line, their total length would be no less than 306 miles.

The first class of mounds we wish to notice is that class built by that race called by one writer the "Effigy race." They have been called by some "animal mounds," by others, "symbolical mounds," and are found in many of the states west and northwest of Ohio, but Wisconsin is their chief centre. Dr. Lapham first called attention to these mounds in 1836, R. C. Taylor wrote an article on them in 1838, and Dr. Locke extended the knowledge of them considerably in 1855. Under the auspices of the Smithsonian institution and the American Antiquarian Society, Dr. Lapham afterwards investigated them thoroughly, and reported fully upon them. These mounds in form represent various beasts, birds, men, and also inanimate objects, and vary in height from one to six feet. They are very numer-

ous, occurring "by the thousands, representing man, the lizard, turtle, elk, buffalo, bear, fox, otter, raccoon, frog, bird, fish, cross, crescent, angle, straight line, war club, tobacco pipe, and other familiar implements and weapons. These works are seldom isolated, but generally occur in groups or ranges, and sometimes placed with apparent design in respect to each other." What the real purpose of these mounds were cannot be ascertained. Excavations have been made frequently, but no relic of any kind has been found in any of them. They may, however, and not unjustly, be regarded as commemorating some important event, some great deed, or, perhaps the heroic death of a chief who died in battle. An effigy, which is said to be thus significant, is one which is regarded as representing a human figure. An ancient tradition states that this figure was erected in honor of a chief killed in battle. There is a small mound between the feet of the figure, "Sacred to the Memory of His Son, Killed Fighting by the Side of His Father." There is another figure of a man in the act of walking. This figure is said to be 214 feet long. Many of these mounds are of much greater length, some of them exceeding 300 feet. Another remarkable mound of this class is that in

the form of an elephant. This mound is in Grant County, Wisconsin, and is situated near the junction of the Wisconsin and the Mississippi rivers. The length of this mound is 135 feet, and its height five feet.

While, as a rule, mounds of this class are found principally in Wisconsin and some other western states, yet there are some notable exceptions. Two very remarkable effigies are found in Ohio. One of them represents an alligator. It is at Granville, in Licking County. Its length is 250 feet; its height four feet. The other is the "great serpent" in Adams County. The "serpent" is represented as being in the act of swallowing or ejecting an oval figure. Its body is described as "winding back for 700 feet, in graceful undulations, terminating in a triple coil at the tail."

The four classes of mounds which are to follow are those structures which really come under the general head of mounds proper, and are best known of all the earthworks. Of these we will describe the sacrificial mound first.

This mound is by far the smallest of all mounds, properly so-called. It is always found within or near an enclosure, and is seldom much higher than the walls of the enclosure, which would

make it about seven or eight feet in height. Its construction is very regular, consisting of uniform layers of sand, earth and gravel. In the centre of the mound is located what is known as the "altar" of the mound. This "altar" is symmetrical in form, and is generally built of clay, which is burnt, but sometimes of stone. Its form varies considerably, being either round, square, elliptical, or in the shape of a parallelogram. Upon this "altar" are found burnt human bones, which shows that the offering was generally a human being. This offering was frequently a captive taken in war, and was undoubtedly a thanks offering for a victory in battle. On this "altar" are also found ornaments and weapons, which indicate the greatest skill in execution, and some very fine specimens of carving; also beads of pearl and shell are found. These being their choicest and most valuable possessions, the cause to which they sacrificed them must have been a very sacred one to them.

The most remarkable group of mounds of this class is found three miles north of Chillicothe, on the Scioto river. The group embraces an enclosure, with an area of thirteen acres, containing twenty-six mounds. The group is known as "Mound City." All these mounds have been

opened, and their construction corresponds to the general description given, though the contents of these mounds vary considerably, but ashes and charred human bones are invariably present.

The second class, temple mounds, is the most remarkable of all. These mounds exceed all others in height and dimensions, and are more complicated in structure than the others. Their form is also marked by great regularity, and is chiefly that of a truncated pyramid. "In form they are round, square, oblong, oval, or octangular, all having the appearance of being left in an unfinished condition. They are generally high, yet examples are known in which they are but a few feet in elevation, although covering several acres of ground. They are usually surrounded by embankments. They are not numerous in Ohio, occurring only at Marietta, Newark, Portsmouth, and in the vicinity of Chillicothe. The farther south we go the more numerous and the greater in magnitude they become, being very abundant in Tennessee and Mississippi. The summits of these mounds were probably covered with temples constructed of wood, but no traces remain to tell of their existence" (MacLean). The most remarkable example of this class was the mound at Cahokia, Illinois. It is situated in

the midst of sixty other mounds, whose heights vary from thirty to sixty feet. It overlooks all the other mounds, rising in four successive terraces to a height of ninety feet. It covers an area of six acres, and it was estimated that between twenty and twenty-five millions of cubic feet of earth was required for its construction. The base of this mound measures 520 by 720 feet; the platform 146 by 310 feet. These mounds being very high and steep, were reached either by winding pathways or graded avenues.

The sepulchral mounds are very numerous, and are usually conical in form. They are generally removed at a distance from the enclosures. "Many are isolated, and others occur in groups, sometimes connected at their bases. When they are found immediately connected, one of the group will be two or three times larger in dimensions than any of the others, the smaller ones being arranged around its base, thus evidencing an intimate relation between them."—MacLean.

Mounds of this class invariably contain one or more Mound Builder skeletons. The dead bodies are placed on or near the surface of the original soil, and the mounds are built over them. These mounds have also been used as burial places by

the Indians, and their skeletons are found frequently and at various depths in them.

A very remarkable mound of this class is the one at Grave Creek, twelve miles below Wheeling, West Virginia. It is seventy feet high and 1,000 feet in circumference at its base. An excavation was made in 1838. It contained "two sepulchral chambers, one at the base, and the other thirty feet above. These vaults had been constructed of timber and covered with stones, which had sunk when the wood decayed, thus giving the summit of the mound a dish-shaped form. The lower chamber contained two skeletons, one of which was thought to be that of a female; the upper chamber contained but one skeleton, and that in an advanced state of decay." A great many shell beads, ornaments of mica, copper bracelets, and other articles carved in stone, were found with these skeletons, besides a stone tablet, bearing a strange inscription, which can not, however, be disciphpered. Other mounds of this class are found at Chillicothe, Newark, and various other places.

The fourth class of mounds comprises those of observation. These are also very large, often rising to a height of sixty or seventy feet. They are generally found on very high hills, and com-

mand a good view of the fortifications for miles around, and a signal fire lighted on one would give the inhabitants a timely warning to flee from an approaching enemy. They are principally found in the valleys of the Scioto, the Little and the Great Miami, the Wabash, and Illinois Rivers.

The second general class of earthworks erected by the Mound Builders is that to which was given the name enclosures. Although the mounds are calculated to attract the attention of a great many people living near them, and also a great deal more readily than the enclosures, yet the latter are more remarkable, both as regards their structure, and the great amount of labor required to erect them. The walls of these enclosures are sometimes very massive, especially of those which served for the purpose of defence. A great many of them are extremely interesting to the student on account of the regularity with which they are built. These works are quite numerous, the State of Ohio alone containing over 1,500 of them. One class of these enclosures is always built in the form of an exact geometrical figure, and are either circular, square, or polygonal. Very frequently an adjoining circle and square will enclose the same number of acres

of surface. These enclosures have by archæologists been divided into two classes: defensive and sacred.

The defensive enclosure or fortification is distinguished from the sacred, first of all, by the site on which it is erected. They are generally found on high tablelands, to which the ascent from the valleys below is very difficult on account of the bluffs and deep ravines formed by the action of water. These natural strongholds are further strengthened by artificial walls which wind along the edge of the hill and along the ravines, rising to various heights, as the abruptness of the bluff or ravine seems to demand. The walls, gateways, and other artificial parts of these enclosures are so constructed and placed as to indicate the military character of the earthwork. These fortifications frequently contain a number of small mounds, which are placed so as to suggest the thought that they are small mounds of observation. The gateways are also very suggestive of the military character of these enclosures. These are frequently very complicated, consisting often of a series of overlapping walls, each wall covering the entrance in the wall next to it, and thus presenting a number of entrances within the main entrance. Such a

gateway was plainly designed to serve the double purpose of deceiving or misleading, and scattering the enemy, and also to give a better opportunity and a number of points of attack upon them from within. The character of these forts also appears from their position with reference to the mounds of observation, and unusually broad and fertile valleys, which were undoubtedly favorite settlements and were very densely populated.

The second class of enclosures, which form their position in reference to the neighboring heights, their form and size, and from the fact that they always occur in the valleys, or where the surface is level, and that they contain or are near numbers of sacrificial mounds, are called sacred, are next to be noticed. This is the class of earthworks which has already been spoken of as having the form of various geometrical figures, which are found to be so perfect by surveyors. Another characteristic of these enclosures is that they have a ditch on the interior of the embankment. J. P. MacLean gives the following description of these enclosures: "The works are generally regular in their structure, and principally found in groups. The circular works are generally small, having nearly a

uniform diameter of from 250 to 300 feet, and the larger ones reaching more than a mile in circumference. They are accompanied by a gateway, usually facing toward the east. In the vicinity of large works, small circles varying from thirty to fifty feet in diameter, and consisting of a light embankment with no gateway, are numerous. The walls are, for the most part, comparatively slight, ranging from three to seven feet, though at times imposing and reaching a height of not less than thirty feet. The walls are composed of surface material and clay. Many of these works are accompanied by parallel walls of slight embankments, sometimes reaching a length of 800 feet. The square, circle, octagon, ellipse, and parallel walls are sometimes found in combination." On the use of these enclosures MacLean gives the following: "The structures coming under the head of sacred enclosures are supposed by archæologists to be places devoted for purposes of worship and the homes of the priesthood. The diameter of some of the enclosures is so great that they could not have served as the walls of temples. Within these places, if we are to judge by the manners and customs of the ancient Mexicans and Peruvians, were erected the shrines of their gods and the altars of this

ancient people. Within the larger circles may have been their sacred graves, and the temples made of wood. The smaller circles may have been designed for the priesthood—the residence of the priest—situated in such an enclosure as was most compatible with his position in the priesthood. The parallel walls were possibly intended for protection during the mysterious marches from one enclosure to another. Possibly some of these structures were designed for purposes of sport among the athletic, or else council houses for purposes of legislature.”

Having thus given a brief description of the different classes of earthworks, we will give a brief enumeration of the principal works of the Ohio valley and the places of their occurrence. In the first place, the remarkable fact forces itself upon our minds that this ancient people displayed similar judgment in locating their principal settlements, to that displayed by the present race. All our principal cities along the Ohio and Mississippi, and their tributaries, are founded on the ruins of these ancient settlements. Thus we find very important earthworks, indicating large settlements, near the sites of Pittsburg, Wheeling, Marietta, Newark, Portsmouth, Chillicothe,

Dayton, Hamilton, Cincinnati, Louisville, and St. Louis.

A few mounds and a cave containing human remains have been discovered in the valley of the Susquehanna, but the portion of Pennsylvania which was more especially occupied by the Mound Builders is west of the Alleghanies. A number of ancient enclosures are found near Meadville, and a number of small mounds along the Monongahela, which "increase in number and size as we descend toward the mouth of that stream at Pittsburg."

The next ancient structure we find, as we go down the Ohio River, is near Wheeling. It is a sepulchral mound of extraordinary size, and is the most noted mound of this class. It rises to a height of seventy feet and measures nearly 1,000 feet in circumference at its base. Judging from what excavations have yielded, this mound was the burial place of some royal personages. There are in this neighborhood some smaller mounds and several enclosures, but of no great importance.

At Marietta and at Newark are found some wonderful works, which belong to the sacred class. The works at Marietta have been classed with mounds, while those of Newark are most

distinctively enclosures. The works at Marietta consist of walls six feet high, with a base of twenty feet, and enclose two irregular squares—a larger and a smaller. These enclosures contain a great many gateways, which are nearly all guarded by small mounds on the inside of the enclosures. Within the large enclosures are four temple mounds with graded ways to the tops of some of them. The principal one of these is ten feet in height, 180 in length, and thirty-two wide. It has a graded ascent to its top, on each of its four sides, sixty feet long and twenty-five feet wide. The larger of these squares is said to enclose forty acres, and the smaller twenty acres. While these works are classed with mounds, probably because these seem to be the most prominent feature about them, the works at Newark form the most remarkable and complicated of the so-called sacred enclosures. These works consist of a great number of geometrical figures, square, circular, and polygonal, in various positions relative to each other and connected in various ways, by parallel walls. These works are of considerable magnitude, extending over an area of about four square miles. One of these figures, a true circle, is 2,880 feet in circumference, and its walls are sixty feet high. The

longest of the parallel walls can be traced to the distance of two miles, and many other remarkable features might be mentioned to indicate the magnitude of these enclosures.

Near Portsmouth are some earthworks worthy of note. One series in Ohio, east of the Scioto River, the other in Kentucky, opposite the mouth of the Scioto. Those in Kentucky consist of an enclosure, which would form an irregular square, but the side on the north is formed by two walls which curve outward, and two sets of parallel walls, one on the east, and the other on the west of the enclosure. These walls run from each side of the enclosure, one east, the other west, and connect with the enclosure by gateways. At the southwest corner of the enclosure is a small mound. The works on the Ohio side consist mainly of parallel walls, and a series of small mounds, all arranged in such a manner as to suggest that the works on both sides of the river must have been devoted to a religious purpose. These works are so situated as to indicate that they stood in connection with each other, and that the builders had some way of bridging the stream to afford a rapid passage from one side to the other, either in their daily intercourse and traffic or in times of war.

In the county which forms the western boundary of the country containing the earthworks just described, in Adams County, on Brush Creek, on a hill 150 feet above the level of the creek, is that remarkable effigy called the great serpent, which has been already described. This wonderful work is isolated from all other works of the same people. The nearest works are some small mounds, but they are eight miles distant.

In Kentucky the many remarkable caves attract our attention more especially. There are quite a number of these, and all are of interest to the antiquarian, as they were all known to the earliest inhabitants of this country, and were used by them both as dwelling places and also as places of burial. Various human remains were at different times taken from these caves. From a cave near Louisville six skulls, a hatchet, mortar and some stone arrow points were taken. A very remarkable cave for the antiquarian is what is called Salt cave. This cave contains many evidences that it once formed a dwelling for some of the early inhabitants. A number of hearths or places where fire had been kindled were discovered. Near one of these hearths was found a bundle of faggots tied together with fibres of bark. "In a little dwelling place at

about three miles from the entrance of the cave, Putnam made out the footprints of a man shod with sandals, and a little further on he found the sandals themselves, made with great skill of interwoven weeds. The garments of the cave men were woven of the bark of young trees. Some black stripes traced on a piece of cloth so prepared, and fragments of fringe also found in the cave, bore witness to their taste in dress. Another piece of stuff curiously mended gave proof of their industry."

Other caves have yielded similar relics. One of these is Short's cave, in which clothes similar to those in Salt cave were found, and in 1813 a mummy was also found in this cave. Mammoth cave was also known to the prehistoric people of Kentucky, and a number of so-called mummies were also found in this cave. These bodies are not what we generally call mummies, as they are not embalmed bodies, but were simply preserved from decay by some peculiar state of the atmosphere in these caves. This is thought to be due to the existence of some chemical properties, such as saltpetre, for instance, in the cave.

The site of Cincinnati has already been referred to as having also been a favorite settlement of the Mound Builders. Notice was first directed

to the antiquities on this site in a letter by Col. Winthrop Sargent, Secretary and Governor *pro tem.* of the Northwest Territory. This letter was written to Dr. Benjamin S. Barton, of Philadelphia, and was dated Cincinnati, September 8, 1794. A full account of them was given by Daniel Drake in his "Natural and Statistical View of Cincinnati," published in 1815.

Cincinnati is built on two river terraces. On the lower of these no earthworks occur. No works of the Mound Builders are known to occur on the first river terrace anywhere. The upper of these terraces is very extended, and here is where these earthworks are found. They consist of two enclosures and four mounds. The large enclosure occupied a central location, and was in the form of an ellipse. Its wall had a height of three feet, and a thirty feet base. Its length from east to west was 800 feet, and its width from north to south 660 feet. It extended from Race street nearly to Walnut, and from a little above Fifth street to a little below Fourth. It had a gateway at the east end ninety feet wide. A wall one foot in height, and having a base nine feet wide, proceeded from the southern wall of the central enclosure, and continued to within a short distance of the edge of the upper terrace, then turning

eastward it connected with a mound on the corner of Third and Main streets. The entire length of this wall was over 500 feet. On Fifth street, east of Broadway, was a circle sixty feet in diameter. The wall of this figure was one foot high, and twelve to fifteen wide. About 600 yards north of the large enclosure, between Vine and Elm streets, and the Miami canal and Twelfth street, were two walls two feet high, and 760 feet long, and were connected at each end. These walls were exactly parallel for two-thirds of their distance, being forty-six feet apart, then they converged to forty feet. In the southern wall where the inclination begins was an opening thirty feet wide.

The first of the four mounds was situated at the northeast corner of Third and Main streets, and is the only one that is connected with the central enclosure. It is an oval figure, eighty feet high, 120 feet long, and sixty feet broad. Quite a number of stone and copper implements and ornaments, also some human bones, were taken from it and the surrounding graves. These bones were sometimes enclosed in rude stone coffins, more frequently, however, surrounded by earth, and mingled with ashes and charcoal. All the bones found in the neighborhood of this mound,

amounted to from twenty to thirty skeletons, but they were very much decayed. One of the early writers states that this mound was then covered with large oak stumps seven feet in diameter. This would indicate a great antiquity, not only for these works, but for the Mound Builders in general. The largest mound in this group of earthworks is the one that stood near where Fifth and Mound streets intersect. Its height in 1815 was twenty-seven feet. It is about 500 yards west of the main enclosure. In 1841, when Mound street was graded, this mound was removed, and among other relics a wonderful stone, which is known as the "Cincinnati Tablet," was found. This tablet was taken from under the skull of a skeleton which was very much decayed. The stone measures five inches in length, three in breadth at the ends, two and six-tenths at the middle, and is about half an inch thick. It is covered with very strange carvings. The two other mounds were small, the one nine feet high and situated near the northwest corner of Seventh and Mound streets, and the other was but three feet high and was situated on the east side of Central avenue, opposite Richmond street.

## CHAPTER III.

### INDIANS.

IN treating of the expulsion of the Mound Builders from the territory north of the Ohio, which so great a number of them occupied and cultivated for so long a time, we are under some difficulties in regard to the race which drove them out of their settlements, and even routed them out of their strong fortifications, which have been briefly described. That the race, which was able to wage war so successfully with so strong a people as the Mound Builders, must have been far superior to the latter in every way, would seem at first sight evident. Some writers suggest that only a race possessing a greater degree of civilization could set up an army which would be able to overthrow them. But it seems strange that this invading nation has left no traces whatever, and no other marks of a high degree of civilization. Could it be that this invading race was one of the Indian tribes of which we have knowledge? Some of these tribes were very strong, both in numbers and as warriors. The race that drove out the Mound Builders came from the northeast. Many Indian tribes mi-

grated from the east and some of these were, when discovered, in the attitude of invading nations ; but this must have been many centuries after the Mound Builders had already been driven out. Besides, those tribes which occupied the southern part of Ohio, which was also principally occupied by the Mound Builders, ascribe their origin to the south.

The Indians are also said to possess no traditions relating to the Mound Builders, but it has been shown that traditions exist among some of the tribes respecting a mighty people, which some take to be the Mound Builders. The Iroquois, which was one of the mightiest and most intelligent of Indian nations, are said to have such a tradition. This nation once inhabited the country about the St. Lawrence river, and were skilled in warfare. The tradition states that south of the great lakes there was once a great empire, the chief ruler of which resided in a golden city. The nations north of the great lakes forming a confederacy, sent an ambassador to visit the emperor of the south. After this the emperor built many forts throughout his empire, extending them almost to Lake Erie. The people of the north considered this as an intrusion on their territory, and the result was a long war. The

northern people being very skillful, finally gained the victory and drove out the southern people. This tradition seems, from what we have already seen when considering this subject in its proper place, a very plausible one, and it is easy after all to see how a fierce and warlike tribe could succeed in driving out a peaceable race, as we have found the Mound Builders to be, and yet not leave any traces of superiority in other ways, if indeed, they possessed any such marks. It may be said then that it is possible that some of the Indian tribes may have driven out the Mound Builders. This must, however, have been done long before any Europeans came to this continent, and likely by a parent race of the races of Indians known to history. Nearly all the recent archæologists are inclined to identify the Mound Builders with the Indians. This mere statement would be misleading, and has caused great difference of opinion. It cannot be justly claimed that the Indians, by which name we generally designate those races which occupied the country at the time of its discovery by the Europeans, built these remarkable structures found so profusely scattered throughout the Mississippi and Ohio valleys. If we, on the other hand, however, keep in mind the antiquity

of these structures and the distinguishing characteristics of their builders, so far as they appear from the structures, it is not very important what name we give to this people—whether we call them Mound Builders or village Indians.

The origin of the red men is also as much a mystery as is that of any primitive race considered in and by itself. One of their most intelligent priests, however, stated that they had their origin in this country, and even goes so far as to state many particulars as to how they were created by the Supreme Being. This seems to us, however, as being a particular application of their tradition respecting the creation of the world and the origin of mankind in general. Their real origin is a profound mystery, and all we can do is to trace some of their migrations from one part of the country to another. It is by far more profitable for us to take them up just as they were found by the Europeans, and study their characters, manners and customs.

By the Indians, as has already been intimated, we mean those tribes, which, taken as a single race, inhabited this entire country at the time of its discovery by the Europeans. That they received this name from Columbus, who, when he landed after a long voyage at a small island in

the West Indies, thought he had reached a part of India, is well known. The views that have been taken of the Indians may be specified as two general ones: The one is the popular view, which is that the Indian is a worthless, lazy, deceitful, revengeful, bloodthirsty creature, who is good for nothing but to be shot down, and that the race as a whole should be wiped from the face of the earth. The other is rather a bright and hopeful view of him, such as we find set forth in a great many beautiful romances and poems which have for their subjects some particular phases of Indian life and character. It is true, that if we view the Indian as he is at present, we see very many things in him that we do not admire, but the time was when he possessed a great many admirable traits of character. When he was kind, truly grateful for a kindness or favor shown him when he was honest, truthful, and had many other noble qualities in which hose Europeans with whom he had his first dealings fell far below him. We need but cast a glimpse at some of these great Indian nations while at the zenith of their glory and power, to be convinced that the Indian is, after all, something more than "a few instincts on legs, flourishing a tomahawk."

As we have already said, upon its discovery this country was found to be inhabited by a number of tribes possessing essentially the same general characteristics, so much so that they were all regarded as belonging to a single race. "From New Mexico to Patagonia, including the West India islands, the Spanish navigators and explorers found this singular people universally distributed, and bestowed upon them all alike the name of Indian. They observed no difference in type, but on the contrary abundant evidence of a common type. The English and French met the aborigines from near the confines of the Arctic Sea to New Mexico, and from the Atlantic to the Pacific, and pronounced them, without distinction, American Indians."

This race, however, was divided into a number of different tribes, many of which were so large that they are frequently spoken of as nations, and these nations were again divided up into tribes. The tribes of Indians may, according to their habits of life, be divided into two general classes: One class had no fixed abode, but were wandering nomads, roving about and depending upon hunting and fishing for their subsistence. The other, known as village Indians, lived in towns with walls of earth and palisades, depended

upon agriculture chiefly for a living, possessed systems of government and religion, and a knowledge of a great many of the mechanical arts in addition to those possessed by the wandering tribes. While these two distinctive classes of Indians are the two extremes in either of which we can find just grounds for one or the other of the above views of their life and character, we also find many gradations between these two extremes ; that is, many tribes which live partly by the chase and partly by agriculture. It is not best to take any one of these views exclusive of the other, for immediately there will be some one to point out to us the other. If we give a glowing description of the bright side of the subject and present it as the proper view of Indian life and character, any one would be justified in holding up before us the dark side, which is by no means small ; and if we desired to be so unjust as to present only the dark side, we would feel condemned for ignoring all the higher and nobler qualities which many of them possessed, not only as individuals, but as tribes as well. In order to avoid these two extremes we will take first some of the highest and best nations among them and follow them as they indulge in their various amusements, festivals and social enjoy-

ments. We will view their systems of religion, their government in times of war and peace. their laws, and the punishment of various crimes, We will try to gain some knowledge of the contents of their minds, get their view of nature, and study their mythology. On the other hand, we desire to cast also a glimpse at the dark side of Indian life, and note some of the principal causes that have contributed so much toward increasing the original darkness.

Among the most advanced and intelligent tribes of Indians were the Algonquins, who occupied at the time of their discovery regions north of the great lakes and thence a wide range of country extending east to the Atlantic coast and west to the Rocky mountains; the Iroquois, who occupied portions of the State of New York, and the Florida tribes, occupying the southern states. Among the four Algonquin nations we find such tribes as the Wyandotes, Chippewas, (Ojibwas), Ottawas, Narragansetts, Massachusetts, Mohegans, Illinois, Miamis, etc. The six tribes of the Iroquois were the Tuscarawas, Senecas, Mohawks, Oneidas, Onondagas and Cayugas. The Florida tribes include such as the Creek, Natchez, Cherokees, Shawnees, etc. With the mere mention of these as the most remarkable of

Indian tribes, we will proceed at once to consider their character as a whole.

As has been suggested, our popular notions of the Indians are gathered from story books, the thrilling accounts of adventurers, the incidents of the early wars of this country, and the sad stories of many captives, all of which of necessity emphasize but that which will make them appear only as merciless, bloodthirsty, murderous wretches, who are hardly to be regarded as human. Such writings as these would naturally render the word Indian, as Mr. Schoolcraft says, "synonymous with half the opprobrious epithets in the dictionary." It was not until the heat and fervor of the early wars were over, and a few thinking men began to reflect more coolly upon Indian affairs, that people began to see that beneath the murderous propensities there was something more than they expected to find. This being could after all do more than swing the tomahawk and handle the scalping knife. It was seen that the red man possessed many traits of character which were truly admirable, and that his systems of government and religion, his philosophy, mythology, and his language, were at least worthy of an intellectual interest.

The Indian appears to us first as the sturdy,

fiere, fearless warrior, inflicting the severest tortures upon his enemies, he, himself, bearing similar tortures with remarkable fortitude. He also appeared proud, cautious, suspicious, and with a bearing extremely rigid, in his contact with the race he had very early learned to hate. In order to detect other phases of his character, we must see him in the camp, far removed from all causes which tend to call forth the characteristics just named. Here the Indian appears to us as a social being also. He indulges freely in feasting, and to these feasts all the adults, without regard to rank, and many of the young men are invited. On such occasions all severity is thrown off, and while partaking of the repast, they indulge freely in conversation, the drift of which is generally along the line of personal adventure. These anecdotes are related in a lively, cheerful, and often in a humorous manner. The old men and chiefs, and the middle-aged men carry on the conversation, while the young only occasionally venture forth with a very modest remark, and the women sit quietly by and indicate their participation in this social enjoyment by smiles.

The habits of life, the daily occupation, and such characteristics as depend on the abundance or scarcity of the various means of subsistence,

vary considerably among different tribes. The rigid climate of the north, the mild climate of the south, in connection with the fertile lands which favor the cultivation of various kinds of grain, the vast prairies of the west with their herds of buffalo, which the hunter pursues on horseback, and many other similar conditions and circumstances impress different characteristics upon those particular tribes that came under their influence. But these various characteristics, nevertheless, attach only to their manner of gaining a livelihood, while others, such as tribe and family government, religious beliefs, mythology, certain mental characteristics, etc., are very similar among them all. It will be very desirable to get some idea of their tribe and family life, their dwellings, the character of their women, etc., at this place.

As among civilized races, much of the comforts of home, the happiness in the family, the social life of the community, the strength of the government, and the intelligence and culture of the nation, depends upon the various natural resources with which a country is blessed ; so, also, much in the life of the Indian is conditioned upon the productiveness of the soil, and the abundance or scarcity of game. While these conditions and

circumstances produce marked differences among the various tribes, yet "they really present," as Mr. Schoolcraft says, "the same idea, the same sentiments, and the same round of duties and obligations, of father and mother, sister and brother, wife and husband."

The Indian is said to have a true idea of matrimony, and his sentiments on this subject are right, although outward ceremonies are almost entirely wanting, and its sacred character almost lost. Polygamy is rarely met with among the Indians, and is never considered reputable. "The relation between husband and wife in the forest," says Schoolcraft, "are formed under circumstances which are generally uniform. Sometimes it is brought about by the intervention of friends; sometimes from a sudden impulse of admiration; sometimes with, and sometimes against the wishes of the graver and more prudent relatives of the parties. When the husband is accepted, and has not before been married, which covers the majority of cases, he comes to live for a while after the marriage, in the lodge of his mother-in-law; and this relation generally lasts until the increase of children, or other circumstances determine his setting up a lodge for himself. Presents are still a ready way for a young

hunter to render himself acceptable in a lodge. There are some instances, where considerable ceremony, and the invitation of friends, have attended the first reception of the bridegroom at the lodge; but these are in most cases what we should denominate matches of state or expediency, in which the bravery, or other public services of a chief or leader, has inclined his village to think that his merits deserve the reward of a wife. Generally, the acceptance of the visitor by the party most interested, and her mother and father, and their expressed, or tacit consent is the only preliminary, and this is done in a quiet way. The only ceremonial observance of which I have ever heard, is the assigning of what is called an abbinos, or permanent lodge seat to the bridegroom. When this has been done by the mother, or mistress of the lodge who governs these things, he is received and henceforth installed as a constituent member of the lodge and family. The simple rule is, that he who has the right to sit by the bride, is her husband." The women are the supreme rulers in the house, assigning to each member of the family his or her place, and the men have nothing to say at all; and the author just quoted, says that he never heard of an instance in which the husband would

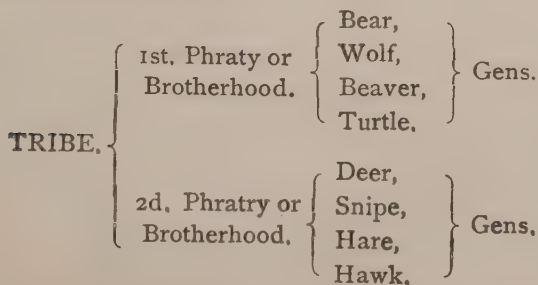
interfere with her household arrangements. In the chase, in affairs of war, or government, at the feasts, and round the council fire, is the man's place to exercise his authority, and the woman in her turn, does not interfere with him here. The division of labor between the husband and wife undoubtedly differed among different tribes. Among some they were about equally divided, while among others a great deal of drudgery was imposed upon the woman, who was regarded as little more than a beast of burden.

The dwellings which the Indian families occupied differed very widely in size, character, and in construction. The small hut of the hunter generally called wigwam, was a very simple structure indeed, consisting mainly of several poles which met and were joined at the top. This frame was covered with the bark of trees and coarse matted goods made by the women. An opening was left in the top to allow the smoke from the fire which was kindled in the center of the wigwam to pass out. Around this fire the family was seated on mats. These wigwams are said to be very dry, warm, and comfortable, even in protracted seasons of wet and cold weather. The more complicated, stronger, more durable, as well as more commodious buildings of the so-called vil-

large Indians, were much more desirable than these. They were generally large enough to give shelter to several families, and some have been found large enough to shelter 500 individuals. These were generally found among the most intelligent tribes, such as the Iroquois, of New York State, and others.

The form of government among the Indians was that known to students of the history of civilization as the tribunal form, which means government by council. It would also imply that they did not live under a general government as do civilized people, but each tribe had a government of its own—choosing its own chiefs from among the brave and wise men of that tribe. It is true we recognize great nations among the North American Indians, such as the Algonquin Nation, whose territory was very large, extending over the northern part of the United States from the Atlantic coast to the Rocky mountains, and also including a portion of Canada. Each of these tribes, however, was independent in its government and had its own peculiar dialect, though all these dialects show that they are but forms of one and the same national language. In times of war these different tribes of the same nation would form confederacies in order to oppose more successfully a common enemy.

Thus, we see that the tribal form is the permanent form in the government of the Indians. The tribe, however, has its subdivisions such as the phratry or brotherhood, the Gens and the family. While it is said that this term may be regarded merely as representing the various subdivisions of a tribe, yet this division is not to be regarded as something arbitrary, but it is the natural outgrowth of that form of society. The tribe is divided into a number of phratries, these are made up of a number of Gens, and the Gens are made up of a number of families. Those families, however, which compose the Gens must be regarded as bound together by the tie of consanguinity, if we would arrive at the true nation of the Gens. In order to illustrate this division we take an example given by E. A. Allen in the "Prehistoric World." It is an outline of the Seneca-Iroquois tribe :



The names of the various animals, as will be readily seen, are the symbols of the various Gens. Each tribe has its chief, as have also the phratries and Gens their chiefs or sub-rulers. The various chiefs form the council on occasions of war, or when other important matters make advisement necessary. The Indians were great warriors—war among the different tribes was not an uncommon occurrence. These wars would sometimes end in the expulsion of a tribe from their territory, and its occupation or control by the conquerors. Some of the stronger tribes, such as the Algonquins, held other tribes under subjection, and received an annual tribute from them.

Although the Indian generally impresses us as being rather sluggish in body and in mind, and that he does not act or think except when compelled to do so by very pressing circumstances, yet we know that he is capable of manifesting remarkable physical activity when the occasion requires it; and there are many instances on record where he has manifested also remarkable intellectual power when the interest of his people seemed to demand it. Even if the Indian waits until he is compelled to think before he will think, there was much in the forest primeval

which was calculated so to move upon him. What is a more active promoter of thought than the various forces of nature as manifested especially to this inhabitant of the forest in so many remarkable and striking ways? There is the sun giving light and heat, waking the earth from the death of winter in a most wonderful manner; there is the moon shedding its cool and magical beams over hill and valley; there is the terrible storm with flashes of lightning and peals of thunder, striking terror into man and beast; there is also the wind bearing on its wings the rosy morning from the east, the soft and gentle spring from the south, coming in the form of the tempest from the west, and burdened with snow and ice from the north. What can be more suggestive of thought to the Indian than these various facts? They force themselves upon him and demand from him an explanation. All minds have an innate tendency to seek for causes. He also seeks for the causes of these strange manifestations, for a solution of the wonderful enigmas that surround him, and the solution invariably comes. Man has never failed yet to find some answer to the questionings within him. He observes his own actions and the actions of his fellow beings. These he sees

invariably attached to and going out from their personality, and so action and personality become inseparably associated with each other. He sees the action, though on a grander scale, of the various forces of nature, and by analogy attributes the various manifestations of power to great personal beings, to whom he gives attributes which correspond to the characteristic effects of the forces. The north and west winds are controlled by persons fierce and cruel, the others by beings mild and gentle. Every sound was to him a voice, every wind a breath, and every motion an action. He explains, as one writer says, all the phenomena of the outer world by those of the inner world. His philosophy is a mythologic philosophy. Of this philosophy there are various degrees or stages, according as various natural objects or mental characteristics are personified. Mr. J. W. Powell in "Bureau of Ethnology," Vol. I., makes four stages of this philosophy: 1st. All things have personality and are gods. 2d. Here inanimate objects are excluded, but beasts are yet regarded as having personality and are worshiped as gods. 3d. In this stage gods who have the form and attributes of human beings are regarded as presiding over the various powers of nature. 4th. In this stage

we have the personification and deification of the different human passions and mental and moral characteristics. While one or more of these stages have been found among nearly all the nations of the earth, they did not exist among the Indians in their full force. His mythology did not prompt him to worship the personalities whom his imagination created, but it terminated rather in a poetic conception. Schoolcraft says: "The pagan world not only believes in a myriad of gods, but worships them also. It is the peculiarity of the North American Indian that while he believes in as many he worships but one, the Great Spirit."

Thus we see that the religion of the Indian rests on quite a different basis than does his mythology. His conception of the various gods, or personages of his mythology, rests on the various external manifestations of power in the operations of nature, but his conception of the Great Spirit comes from within. It is a purely spiritual conception. We can, however, naturally expect that around this notion, however pure it may be in itself, a great many rites, ceremonies, doctrines, beliefs, and superstitions, which are not to be credited in the least, would naturally attach themselves. This is unavoidable in

him, for all these things depend, like his notion of mythology, upon intellectual development. It hardly seems worth our while to enumerate all these wild beliefs and notions, which none of us would credit in the least, as they can very readily be found in all books that treat on Indians. It would be of some use, however, to mention a few of his beliefs which serve to show the purity of his religious concepts, properly so called.

Manitou is the Indian name for God. This is the general name, and is applied by him to the mythological personages also. He has other names, however, for the Great Spirit: the Good God, the Creator, the Giver of Life. To Kietan, the Good God, he ascribes all the benefits of life. He had also Hobbamock, or the Evil Spirit, whose striving was to do them harm. This spirit received a great share of their worship. They offered prayers to him for mercy, and offered sacrifices to him to appease his wrath. "All the North American Indians," says Schoolcraft, "know that there is a God, but their priests teach them that the devil is a God, and as he is believed to be very malignant, it is the great object of their ceremonies and sacrifices to appease him." The belief in the immortality of the soul, as is well known, was very strong among them, and is shown in their

reverence and care for their dead. They also had a legend of a person of miraculous birth, who was sent among them as a benefactor, to teach them war and agriculture, but, as many other nations, they did not extend this notion of a benefactor to that of a savior, as this is beyond the unaided intellect of man. Most of us will call to mind this legend, so beautifully told by Longfellow in his "Song of Hiawatha." All these notions are, however, so surrounded by superstitious doctrines and practices that we usually cast from us the good with the bad. It seems to us, however, that in our attempts to christianize the Indian, we must make the pure religious notions which he possesses the foundation upon which to rest our own system. Had the early missionaries recognized this fact, how much better it would have been for both parties concerned.

A very prominent characteristic of the Indian seems to be a fondness for singing and dancing. Of these two, the dance may be said to be most frequently resorted to on very many occasions. With war, with religious worship, and with all their many festivals, do we invariably find the dance associated. In the proud, lofty, and heroic spirit of the Indian, as well as in his tender regard for young children, it would seem that we would

not look in vain for many lofty and tender poetic sentiments. "The great storehouse of Indian imagery," says the author already quoted, "is the heavens, the clouds, the planets, the sun, the moon, the phenomena of lightning, thunder, electricity, aerial sounds, electric or atmospheric, and the endless variety produced in the heavens by light and shade, and by elemental action. These constitute the fruitful themes of allusion in their songs and poetic chants. But these are mere allusions, or broken descriptions, like touches on the canvas, without being united to produce a perfect object. The strokes may be those of a master, and the coloring exquisite; but without the art to draw, or the skill to connect, it will remain but a shapeless mass." This gives a good idea of their poetry and song. While the sentiment seems to be good, yet their poetry lacks connected thought and is without metre.

In regard to the music of the Indians, very little of scientific value is known, in fact, there is very little among them that is worthy of the name of music. The principal uses of music and singing among the Indians was to accompany the various dances. They used the tambourine and a drum. These were only to mark time and to keep up the rhythm of the dance. Another in-

strument, and the only wind instrument they had, was a species of flute made of two pieces of cedar wood, covered with the skin of a snake, and contained eight holes or keys. This instrument was played like a flageolet, and was capable of producing a variety of sounds. There is no melody to their songs, for they seem to be simply a rythmical succession of monotones, with an occasional change to higher tones, and then usually a return to the first tone. Their music seems to be essentially rhythm, and their songs, both as to words and melody, but mere improvisations, whose composition is purely extempore.

The Indians are well known for their reverence for and the extreme care they take of the dead bodies of their friends. They exhibit much distress and grief on funeral occasions, and frequently give vent to their feelings in the most pitiable lamentations at the burial places of their dear ones. They are also very attentive in the way of bringing food to the graves of their relatives, as this is believed to be necessary for the comfort and happiness of the dead friend, one of whose souls is believed to repose in the tomb with the body. Mr. H. C. Yarrow, in "Bureau of Ethnology," Vol. I, gives a summary of the many different methods which the Indians had of dis-

posing of their dead. They are as follows: 1. By inhumation in pits, graves, or holes in the ground, stone graves or cists, in mounds, beneath or in cabins, wigwams, houses or lodges, or in caves. 2. By embalmment, or a process of mummifying, the remains being afterwards placed in the earth, caves, mounds, boxes on scaffolds, or in charnel houses. 3. By deposition of the remains in urns. 4. By surface burial, the remains being placed in hollow trees or logs, pens, or simply covered with earth, or bark, or rocks forming a cairn. 5. Cremation, or partial burning, generally on the surface of the earth, occasionally beneath, the resulting bones and ashes being placed in pits in the ground, in boxes placed on scaffolds, or trees, in urns, sometimes scattered. 6. Aerial sepulchre, the bodies being left in lodges, houses, cabins, tents, deposited on scaffolds or posts, or placed on the ground. Occasionally baskets have been used to contain the remains of children, these being hung on trees. 7. By aquatic burial, beneath the water, or in canoes, which are turned adrift.

The advent of the white people to this country has had a remarkable effect upon the Indian. It would indeed be a very unpleasant task to sketch the history of the Indian since the first white man

set his foot upon American soil. It would be only a record of crimes, cruel wars, massacre, and bloodshed, from the beginning to the end. It was not only the new, strange, and seemingly supernatural mode of warfare that surprised the Indian, but also the bad traits of character of his European conquerors. The deceitfulness, the treachery, the dishonesty, and the immorality of many of the first Indian traders, and even of government officials, were traits of character unknown to the Indian in his primitive condition, and created within him a hatred for all Europeans, which has now become almost a second nature to him. This enmity and warring between whites and Indians, has always been steadily going on ever since the massacre of the thirty-six Spaniards whom Columbus, on his first voyage, left on one of the islands he discovered, and whom on his second voyage, he found had been killed by the natives, on account of various offences and oppression. Nearly all the associations of the Indians with the whites have had a very depressing effect upon the former. "The uniform result," says Allen, "was that the Indian tribes were steadily driven away from their ancient homes, until we now find them but a sorry remnant on scattered reservations, or grouped together in the

Indian Territory. Their ancient institutions are nearly broken down, and it is with difficulty that we can gain an understanding of their early condition."

Intoxicating liquor was a very potent factor in the degradation of the red race. It is not desired to go into details in regard to the suffering and misery entailed upon those who drink at this fountain-head of disease and sin. The effects of a life of intemperance are all too well known in our day to need any mention at this place. Its vile and engulfing stream was very early turned upon the Indian, and had on him its characteristic effects. It made enemies out of friends, and prompted those to destroy each other who before had thought no ill. All the nations, without exception, which were represented by the early adventurers and explorers, contributed their share toward the supply of ardent spirits to the Indian. "Under the French government," says Schoolcraft, "they were liberally supplied with brandy. Under the English, with Jamaica rum. Under the Americans, with whisky. These constitute the fire, the gall, and the poison ages of the Indian history. Under this triple curse they have maintained an existence in the face of a white population. But it has been an existence merely.

Other nations are said to have had a golden age. But there has been no golden age for them."

The following scene, which Mr. Schoolcraft takes from Heckwelder's "Account of the Indians," is one which is very characteristic, and will not be out of place here: "The first interview of Hudson with the Mohegan tribes took place at the mouth of the river which now bears his name. It is remarkable as the scene of the first Indian intoxication among them. He had no sooner cast anchor and landed from his boat, and passed a friendly salutation with the natives, than he ordered a bottle of ardent spirits to be brought. To show that he did not intend to offer them what he would not himself taste, an attendant poured him out a cup of the liquor, which he drank off. The cup was then filled and passed to the Indians, but they merely smelled of it and passed it on. It had nearly gone round the circle untasted when one of the chiefs, bolder than the rest, made a short harangue saying it would be disrespectful to return it untasted, and declaring his intention to drink off the potion if he should be killed in the attempt. He drank it off. Dizziness and stupor immediately ensued. He sank down and fell into a sleep—the sleep of death, as his companions thought. But in due

time he awoke, declared the happiness he had experienced from its effects, asked again for the cup, and the whole assembly followed his example."

The following short description of the personal appearance of the Indian we take from a paper by Mr. L. Ray, published in "Indian Miscellany," edited by Beach:

"Almost without exception the Indians were tall, straight and muscular. Their manner of life from the earliest period of youth was such as to insure a free and full development of the physical system, and born as they were of sturdy mothers, they inherited none of those bodily weaknesses which, self-caused or otherwise, so heavily curse the females of a later race. Nearly white when new-born, the young Indian turns more and more to the tawny hue as he advances in years, until the copper color of his nation is finally fixed upon him. A broad, square face, with considerable elevation of features; hair black and coarse, but never curling; eyes small, dark and keen. These complete his outward personal description."

In studying the Indian tribes of the Ohio valley—who they were and where they came from—it is necessary to understand something of

Indian migration in general. In doing this we will not touch again upon their origin, but merely consider briefly such migrations which they made since their discovery, and a few of those of which they have preserved traditions. Again, in order to understand the migrations of the various tribes, we must understand something of the natural products of the various parts of the country, and see how these localities are calculated to furnish the Indian with a desirable and abundant means of subsistence. The two chief sources from which the Indian derived his subsistence was hunting and fishing. This vast country yielded an abundance of game, and its extended sea shores with their numerous gulfs and bays, also the great lakes in the north, supplied them with fish. The Indians being chiefly fishers, we would look for their largest settlements along the sea coast and at the lakes, and so we find them. The Florida tribes occupied the southern portion of the United States east of the Mississippi river, and the four great Algonquin nations, as we have already seen, originally occupied the New England states, but spread westward until the entire country surrounding the great lakes was in possession of their different tribes. This was the

greatest center of Indian population, merely on account of the fisheries.

For this reason the Ohio valley was never inhabited much by the Indians. It is true there was some game here, but no fisheries. Lewis H. Morgan says: "There is a wide district of country upon both sides of the Ohio River, occupying half the space between the great lakes and the gulf, which formed the poorest part of the area west of the Mississippi. It was not destitute of game, but poor in fisheries, and therefore uninhabitable without cultivation of the soil. The absence of lakes throughout this area, and the turbid character of the waters of the Mississippi which excluded ocean fish, furnished a sufficient reason why this entire region was a solitude at the period of European discovery." It is said that when Kentucky was first explored and settled it was almost entirely uninhabited by the Indians. The Chickasaws near the Mississippi River, and a small settlement opposite Portsmouth, O., is all that were found within what is now known as Kentucky. Ohio, about the year 1656, was also entirely uninhabited. It was not until the Iroquois, or Six Nations who occupied the State of New York, began their migrations southwestward, that Ohio was occupied

by the Indians. It is said that before the year 1680, the entire country from the lakes to the Ohio, and west to the Mississippi, was under the control of the Six Nations. It is not likely that they occupied the Ohio valley very long, for they received opposition from the western division of the Algonquin Nation, who occupied the lake regions north of Indiana and Illinois. The confederacy of these tribes was known as the Miami Confederacy, which in the middle of the seventeenth century was at the zenith of its power. In about the year 1700, we find these tribes entering Ohio. At the time of settlement, we find in the valley on the Ohio side, two tribes in possession of the country: The Miamis and the Shawnees. The Miamis, who occupied the western portion of this territory, probably came originally from Lake Michigan; the Shawnees, which included the Piqua, Chillicothe, and other tribes, came originally from Florida, and occupied the eastern part of the territory. They are described as being a restless people, always engaged in war with their neighbors. When they first came from the south they located in Western Pennsylvania in 1698. In 1728 they were again in motion toward the west, and at that time they located in Ohio, in the

valley of the Scioto. This river formed the dividing line between this tribe and the Miamis.

The following short sayings are by Schoolcraft, and are found scattered through his work :

“ Wild thoughts are often bright thoughts, but like wild leaps of a mountain torrent, they are evanescent and unequal. We are dazzled by a single figure in Indian speech, but it is too often like a spark amid a shower of ashes.”

“ Singing and dancing are applied to political and religious purposes by the Indians. When they wish to raise a war party, they meet to sing and dance ; when they wish to supplicate the divine mercy on a sick person, they assemble in a lodge to sing and dance. No grave act is performed without singing and dancing.”

“ The Indian formerly worshiped the sun as a symbol of divine intelligence.”

“ Fire is an unexplained mystery to the Indian ; he regards it as the connecting link between the natural and the spiritual world. His traditionary lore denotes this.”

“ To be governed, and to be enslaved, are ideas which have been confounded by the Indians.”

“The poetry of the Indians is the poetry of naked thought. They have neither rhythm nor metre to adorn it.”

“Tales and traditions occupy the place of books with the red race. They make up a kind of oral literature, which is resorted to on long winter evenings for the amusement of the lodge.”

“The love of independence is so strong with these tribes that they have never been willing to load their political system with the forms of a regular government, for fear it might prove oppressive.”

“Hunting and war are arts which require to be taught. The Indian youth, if they were not furnished with bows and arrows, would never learn to kill. The same time spent to teach them war and hunting, if devoted to teach them letters, would make them readers and writers. Education is all of a piece.”

“Example is more persuasive than precept, in teaching the Indian. Tell him that he should not touch alcohol, and he may not see clearly why; but show him by your invariable practice, that

you never do, and he may be led to confide in your admonitions."

"An Indian war song sung in public by the assembled warriors on the outbreak of hostilities, is a declaration of war."

## CHAPTER IV.

### DISCOVERY OF THE OHIO VALLEY.

[N order to gain a clear notion of the discovery of the Ohio valley and the neighboring territory, and in what way and by whom the various districts were first entered, it is perhaps well to notice briefly the discovery of the American continent in general, and the portions first occupied by those European powers who were most active in this discovery, and which were the starting points of the subsequent discovery of this valley. We find three European nations who were especially active in furthering discoveries on the American continent—the Spanish, English and French. The period of active discovery dates from that of Columbus in 1492. This and also quite a number of subsequent discoveries in that part of the continent were made by the Spanish government. The Spanish efforts extended rather westward and southward than northward from the point of Columbus' discovery. Their attitude was that of adventurers and conquerors. They were attracted by the gold of Mexico and the splendor of the Aztec empire under Mon-

tezuma, and it was here that they saw an opportunity of gratifying their highest ambitions. In 1512, however, before the conquest of Mexico occurred, Ponce de Leon, one of the old companions of Columbus, discovered the coast of Florida. He called the country by this name both in honor of the day on which he discovered it, (Easter Sunday, Spanish name Pascua Florida, holy day of flowers,) and because the trees along the shore were all loaded with blossoms. In 1516 this same country was visited by a Spanish sea captain, Diego Miruelo, who, in trading with the natives, received from them quantities of gold. Meanwhile the several years of conquest in Mexico, which Cortez began in 1519, claimed the attention of the Spanish. But Florida and its gold was not forgotten, and in 1526 Pamphilo de Narvaez undertook an examination of the country north of the Gulf of Mexico. The native tribes, however, were suspicious, each referring him to others in the interior of the country until he finally, after a six months' journey, returned weary and disappointed, with but four or five men left out of three hundred.

It was not until the year 1538 that DeSoto, who had been with Pizarro in the conquest of Peru, and who desired to become equally famous

and wealthy, obtained permission from the King of Spain to conquer Florida at his own expense.

This he began to do in May 1539, and until November he had reached Appalachee bay without much success. In 1540 he entered what is now the State of Georgia, then turning westward he reached, in October of this year, the Mobile, where he conquered an Indian town. The frequent attacks from the Indians, however, rendered his stay here very undesirable, and he marched westward toward the Mississippi, passing the winter probably on the Yazoo. In the spring of 1541 he reached the Mississippi, and set about preparing barges to convey his party and their horses across the stream. Having crossed the river he journeyed northward until he reached the neighborhood of New Madrid. He was then probably less than fifty miles from the mouth of the Ohio river. Turning again westward, he marched to the source of the White river, a distance of 200 miles. Still he saw no indications of the objects of his search. He then marched southward, passing the winter on the Washita. In the spring of 1542 he descended this river to its junction with the Mississippi. He then attempted to make his way down along the banks of the Mississippi, but found it impossible

on account of the endless swamps. Being also threatened by the Indians, he became disheartened, died May 21st, and his body was sunk into the river. This was the first European who entered the western country. His expedition is said, however, to have been attended by no results but arousing the hostility of the natives. It was not until about a century after this expedition of De Soto that other Europeans entered the western territory, but from another direction.

The English made several voyages to this continent as early as 1497 and 1498, landing on the coast of Labrador. But for the next century, England entirely checked her adventures and discoveries in the new world. It was not until after the reformation in England, that, under the reign of Edward VI, the spirit of adventure was again awakened. In 1583, Sir Humphrey Gilbert conceived the plan of colonizing America. He sailed in company with Walter Raleigh, with five vessels in June, 1583, and in August of the same year he reached Newfoundland. Nothing, however, was accomplished in this voyage.

Between the years 1606 and 1616, or thereabout, discovery and colonization went on more rapidly under the English merchants. All their energies were directed to the vast tract extending

from the mouth of Cape Fear River to Passamaquoddy Bay—from the point furthest south on the coast of North Carolina, to the northern limit of the coast of Maine. Under various English land companies, settlement was rapidly carried forward, and the English became firmly established east of the Alleghanies. By various treaties they obtained a great deal of land from the Indians, and made them their allies. In 1726 a formal deed was drawn up and signed by the chiefs of the Six Nations (Iroquois), by which they placed their entire possessions under England. The Six Nations at that time claimed to own the Ohio valley, and it was upon this ground that England afterward claimed dominion over the valley. This Iroquois possession, however, was as we have seen in another chapter, previous to the year 1680, and it is likely that in 1726 the valley was occupied by other tribes.

We see then, that the English gained possession of the New England, Eastern, and some of the Southern States very early, and became firmly established. The efforts of the French, however, were directed to another part of the continent. In 1504 some French voyagers reached the shore of Newfoundland. John Verrazzani reached the mainland in the latitude of Wilming-

ton in 1524, and sailing northward, explored the coast of New Jersey. He continued going north, and traced carefully the coast of New England, reaching Newfoundland in May, and in July, returning to France. James Cartier sailed to Newfoundland in 1534, passed up the St. Lawrence River as far as Montreal, where he found several Indian towns of importance. In 1541 five ships of French colonists, under Cartier's guidance, came over, passed up the St. Lawrence, and settling near Quebec they built a fort. Colonization went forward very rapidly in this region from this time on, and in 1612 Franciscan monks began pressing their way very rapidly westward, preaching the gospel, and to a certain degree opening the way for discoverers, traders, and settlers.

In 1616, LeCaron, the French Franciscan, had explored Upper Canada, and penetrated the country of the Wyandottes as far as the streams that empty into Lake Huron; and in 1634 a mission was founded on the shores of the lake by two Jesuits. It was, however, in 1641, just one hundred years after DeSoto's discovery of the Mississippi, that the first Canadian envoys came in contact with the savage nations of the northwest, at the falls of St. Mary, below the outlet of Lake Superior. "This visit, however, led to no perma-

nent result, and it was not till 1659 that even any of the adventurous fur traders spent a winter on the frozen and inhospitable shores of the vast lakes of the north, nor till 1660 that the unflinching devotion of the missionaries caused the first station to rise upon its rocky and pine-clad borders. But Mesnard, who founded that station, perished in the woods a few months afterward, and five more years slipped by before Father Claude Allouez, in 1665, built the earliest of the lasting habitations of white men among the kindly and hospitable Indians of the northwest. Following in his footsteps, in 1668, Claude Dablou and James Marquette founded the mission at St. Mary's Falls; in 1670, Nicholas Perrot, as agent for Talon, the intendant of Canada, explored Lake Michigan as far as Chicago; in 1671 formal possession was taken of the northwest by French officers in the presence of Indians assembled from every part of the surrounding region, and in the same year Marquette gathered a little flock of listeners at Point St. Ignatius, on the mainland north of the Island of Mackinac" (Annals of the West). This will give some idea of the discoveries made by the French, and the region of country occupied by them.

Thus, we find the Spanish established in the

south, the English in the east, and the French in the north. It is to these first discoveries and settlements that we must look as the starting points of those efforts which led to the discovery of the Ohio valley. The Spanish never made any attempts at its discovery, and the English made no serious move westward prior to 1749, so we must give the credit to the French. After they became established to some degree in the regions of the lakes, their zeal for the spread of the gospel urged them on from tribe to tribe. Many of the early discoverers were also led on by some phantom or other which presented itself to their minds sometimes in one form, sometimes in another. The Spaniards were in search of fabulous quantities of gold, or a fountain of perpetual youth, which was supposed to exist somewhere in the interior of North America. Some of the early French explorers of the north when they reached Lake Michigan, not knowing the vast extent of the continent, were seeking for a passage from some of the lakes to the Pacific ocean, and hoped thus to discover a short passage to China. Many of these early discoverers had repeatedly heard from the Indians of the great river of the west, and called by them a name which signified "Father of Waters." Marquette heard of this

great river. "He fancied upon its banks—not mighty cities, mines of gold, or fountains of youth, but whole tribes of God's children, to whom the sound of the gospel had never come. Filled with the wish to go and preach to them he obeyed with joy the orders of Talon, the wise intendant of Canada, to lead a party into the unknown distance, and having received as companions on behalf of the government a M. Joliet, of Quebec, together with five boatmen, in the spring of 1673 he prepared to go forth in search of the much talked of stream," (Annals of the West).

On the 13th of May, 1673, this band of seven set out on their search with two canoes and a small supply of food. Passing across Lake Michigan and through Green Bay, they entered Fox River. There they came upon an Indian village where Allouez had preached. Beyond this point no one of the discoverers had yet gone. On the 10th of June they left this place with some Indian guides to accompany them. They carried their canoes across the country to the Wisconsin River, and then floated down that stream till they reached the Mississippi on the 17th day of June. Floating on down the Mississippi they discovered the mouths of the

Illinois, Missouri and the Ohio. The latter, however, is said to make but a small figure on Marquette's map compared to the Illinois, which he explored more fully. He went as far south as Arkansas; then fearing to go further he returned to the Illinois, through which he reached the lake. This was the first voyage on the Mississippi by Europeans, and Marquette is to be regarded as the discoverer of the Ohio.

La Salle, hearing the account of Marquette, was the next to undertake a similar voyage, but his object was to discover the mouth of the Mississippi. Some time in December of 1679 he crossed the country from Lake Michigan to the Illinois River, which he descended, reaching Peoria Lake January 4, 1680. Here he built a fort. He then returned to Canada and sent Louis Hennepin to explore the northern regions of the Mississippi. It was not until 1682 that La Salle descended the Mississippi to its mouth. He then named the entire country through which he had passed Louisiana, in honor of the King of France, from whom he had received his commission. This Louisiana comprised the entire territory watered by the Mississippi and its tributaries. Thus, La Salle laid the foundation of the French claims to the Mississippi valley. All

this was done with the consent of the Indians dwelling in this region. Although La Salle's work was without any immediate result, yet by his several voyages to the Mississippi, and by a number of forts which he built upon it and some of its tributaries, he succeeded in calling the attention of his nation to his grand Louisiana. By his enterprise and the forts which he built he was instrumental in laying the foundation for the first settlements in the Mississippi valley. During the year which immediately followed the discoveries of La Salle and others, settlement in the Mississippi valley went actively forward. Forts were built and trading points were established, and a number of missions were founded.

We find in the beginning of the eighteenth century the French tolerably well established all along the Mississippi valley, while the English occupied the entire country east of the Alleghanies. The country between the Alleghanies and the Mississippi was as yet practically unexplored; in fact, had hardly yet been penetrated by any Europeans except by a few traders. It was in 1749 that the English began to turn their serious attention to the west. As has already been stated, the territory that we have already seen the French taking possession of, the Eng-

lish claimed by right of purchase from the Six Nations and others of the Indian tribes of the east who claimed dominion over the Ohio valley. This claim of the English proved in time a serious contention between them and the French, and resulted in many wars and massacres, in which the various Indian tribes who were at enmity with one another became allied on the respective sides. At this time the "present states of Ohio, Indiana and Kentucky" were "substantially in the possession of the Indians." "From this, however, it must not be inferred that the English were ignorant of or indifferent to the capacities of the west, or that the movements of the French were unobserved up to the middle of the eighteenth century. Gov. Spotswood, of Virginia, as early as 1710, had commenced movements, the object of which was to secure the country beyond the Alleghanies to the English crown." Gov. Keith and Secretary James Logan, of Pennsylvania, also represented to England the necessity of securing the lands of the west.

England's first claim was from the Atlantic to the Pacific, on the ground that they had discovered and taken possession of the sea coast. which was in reality a discovery and possession of the entire country.

The earliest visit by an Englishman to the west was that of John Howard, who came from Virginia, crossing the mountains in 1742, and, as the story goes, "sailed in a canoe made of a buffalo skin down the Ohio, and was taken by the French on the Mississippi." After this it is likely that traders from across the Alleghanies came to the Ohio valley, and in 1748 Conrad Weiser, of Philadelphia, was sent with presents to the Indians at Logstown, on the Ohio River. This was for the double purpose of quieting the Indians who were beginning to demand an additional amount of money which had been promised them at the treaty of Lancaster, and also to sound them as to the proposed settlements of some Virginians in the west. "The object of these proposed settlements was not cultivation of the soil, but the monopoly of the Indian trade, which, with all its profits, had been in the hands of unprincipled men, half civilized, half savage, who, through the Iroquois, had from the earliest period penetrated to the lakes of Canada and competed everywhere with the French for skins and furs." It was proposed by these Virginians to organize a great company, which could take possession of lands, build trading houses, furnish the Indians with European goods, and exporting

the furs obtained from them. The Indians at Logstown regarded this very favorably. In 1748, therefore, a petition for half a million of acres of land beyond the Alleghanies was granted by the king, and the company formed was known as the "Ohio Company."

These movements made by the English served to awaken the French to the necessity of asserting their claims to that portion of the west. In 1749 they resolved to "place plates of lead on which were written out the claims of France in the mounds and at the mouths of the rivers." They had hoped by this act to secure to themselves beyond contest the title to the Ohio, but the English paid no attention to this whatever, for it was in this same year that they built a large trading house as far west as the Great Miami River. The French were determined to oppose all moves that the English made, and in this same year they seized two English traders on the Maumee. During the following year we find neither English nor French taking any important steps toward occupying the disputed territory. In 1751, however, both powers made definite moves, the English to survey and settle the country, the French to stir up the savages and to fortify some of the streams. The "Ohio

Company" appointed Christopher Gist to examine the lands of the west. This he did, going west as far as the trading house on the Miami, and descending the Ohio as far as the falls. He made but a general examination of the lands on the Ohio, but made a thorough survey of that part of West Virginia lying between the Ohio, Kanawha and the Alleghanies. This was the tract on which the "Ohio Company" proposed to make its first settlements.

The purpose of the French was to gain possession of the Ohio River. This they sought to accomplish by building forts on its upper waters. This was done in order that they might easily attack the lower points held by the English. They began at Erie on the lake, and opened a wagon road in order to establish a line of communication to the Alleghany. This road extended from Erie to a small lake at the head of French Creek, where they then built a fort. This was some time in 1752. While they were thus fortifying themselves they also took care to prevent the English from doing the same thing. A party of soldiers were sent to keep the Ohio clear. These hearing of the English trading house on the Miami, went and demanded the traders, whom they regarded as intruders on French lands. This demand was

made of the Indians (Twigtwees), who had located there for the purpose of trading with the English. The Indians refused, however, to deliver them up, and consequently the French, assisted by the Ottawas and Chippewas, attacked the trading house, and after a severe battle the French gained the victory, carrying the traders into Canada as prisoners. This trading house was called by the English, Pickawillany.

Thus was the first blood shed between the English and the French in the Ohio valley, and also the first English settlement here destroyed. The English then saw the importance of setting matters aright between themselves and the Indians, who were somewhat displeased with the Lancaster treaty. They were, however, anxious for English protection since the attack of the French upon the Twigtwees, and consequently they met the English at Logstown, on the Ohio, seventeen miles and a half below Pittsburg, and conferred with them there in June 1752. The Indians were at first not inclined to yield to the requests of the English as they had not granted them any possessions west of the Alleghanies in the Lancaster treaty, the English, however, having assumed such possessions. After a good deal of persuasive argument, however, had been presented to their

interpreter and an Indian chief, the Indians all signed a deed which confirmed the Lancaster treaty, and consented to a settlement west of the Ohio. They also guaranteed not to disturb the settlers. This was the first treaty with the Indians in the Ohio valley.

At the close of 1752, matters were in a very unsettled state in the west. The English were settling in the tract of land granted them by the Indians, and the French were fortifying themselves more securely in the north, while the Indians, displeased with all their treaties with the English, admiring, however, the way in which they had always been treated by the French, occupied a neutral ground, not knowing whether to join the French or English. They finally sought protection from the English, and wanted them to build a fort on the site of Pittsburg. They also sent messengers to warn the French, but these in turn stated their intentions to build forts all along the upper Ohio. George Washington, at that time a young man of twenty-one years and eight months of age, was next sent by the Governor of Virginia to confer with the Indians at Logstown, but nothing satisfactory could be gained from them as they had been intimidated by the threats of the French, so he left Logstown to deliver his mes-

sage from the Governor to the French, who were at that time on French Creek, and having received an answer he returned to Virginia. During Washington's absence steps were taken to build the fort at the junction of the Alleghany and the Monongahela. While the English were building this fort, the French also built a fort at Venango, gathered troops, had in their possession about 300 canoes, and were ready to descend the Ohio River. This was about April, 1754. Preparations for war were also actively going on in Virginia, but the French in the meantime, descended the Alleghany and took the fort at the fork of the Ohio, which they held and called Fort DuQuesne. This opened the war between these two powers. It was a severe one, lasting for nine years (1754 to 1763).

The year 1755 opened with various negotiations between England and France. Various compromises were proposed, but could not be agreed upon. At the same time, however, both powers were making active preparations for war. Vessels were fitted out, and troops were gathered and sent at once across the Atlantic. The English contemplated a complete attack on all the principal French posts in this country, which were four: Fort DuQuesne, Crown Point, Niagara, and the

posts in Nova Scotia. On the 20th of April, Braddock left Alexandria and marched toward Fort DuQuesne. Here a battle, in which he was defeated completely, was fought on the 9th of July. James Smith, who was a captive in the fort at the time of the battle, says, as to the result of this battle, in his memoirs: "From the best information I could receive, there were only seven Indians and four French killed in this battle, and 500 British lay dead on the field, besides what were killed in the river on their retreat."

The expedition which left Boston on the 20th of May to conquer Nova Scotia was more successful, for they gained the victory over these posts some time in June. During this time Shirley, who was to attack Niagara, and Johnson, who was to attack Crown Point, were gathering their troops at Albany. With all these movements and a number of battles which had been fought during 1755, it was not until in May, 1756, that war was declared. Braddock's defeat caused the Indians to push their way eastward across the mountains. In consequence of this the government appointed Major Lewis to lead troops to invade the Indian towns on the Ohio. This, however, proved a failure. In 1757 the capture of the Fort William Henry, by Montcalm, and

the destruction of the British fleet by a gale off Louisburg, were the leading events. "But the year 1758 opened under a new star. On sea and land, in Asia, Europe and America, Britain regained what had been lost. The Austrians, Russians and Swedes all gave way before the great captain of Prussia, and Pitt sent his own strong and hopeful and energetic spirit into his subalterns. In North America Louisburg yielded to Boscawen; Fort Frontainac was taken by Bradstreet, and DuQuesne was abandoned upon the approach of Forbes through Pennsylvania. From that time the fort at the fork of the Ohio was Fort Pitt" (Annals of the West).

The taking of this fort ended the contest between the English and French in the west, but in Canada war was still carried on between them. Success seemed to attend the British there also, for "in 1759 Ticonderoga, Crown Point, Niagara, and at length Quebec itself yielded to the English, and on the 8th of September, 1760, Montreal, Detroit and all Canada were given up by Vandreuil, the French Governor," (Annals of the West). The difficulties between England and France were finally settled by the treaty of Paris on the 10th of February, 1763. The English now set actively to work to settle the west. This,

however, was attended by many difficulties, as the Indians did not like the English. All their meetings with them for the purpose of making treaties had been very unsatisfactory. The English had made many unfair attempts to claim the lands of the west, and by "rum and bumbo" did they attempt to obtain from the Indians grants to these lands, "but when the rum had evaporated the wild men saw how they had been deceived, and listened not unwillingly to the French professions of friendship, backed as they were by presents and politeness, and accompanied by no attempts to buy or wheedle land from them."

While the English had conquered the French, they yet retained a bitter enemy in the Indian. Especially among the northern tribes was the feeling against the English strong, and everywhere in the massacres and the burning huts of settlers do we see the terrible results of this bitter feeling which the English had aroused.

We are now at the period of the history of the Ohio valley, where the history of its discovery passes over into the history of the first settlers, or the pioneer history, which we will consider in the following chapter.

## CHAPTER V.

### PIONEER HISTORY.

WE have in the preceding chapter seen how the Ohio valley was entered by the French going out from their posts on Lake Michigan, and also afterward from those on Lake Ontario, and by the English from their posts in the eastern states. It seems that the French claimed the valley by right of discovery, and the English by right of treaty with the Iroquois and by purchase. We have also seen how both of these powers held their claim firmly, and how they were involved in a war which ended in the victory of the English, not only in the Ohio valley but elsewhere also, and how they made another attempt to settle the valley. In considering the pioneer history of this valley we must not forget the enmity which the Indians had toward the English.

While therefore, interest in settling the west was revived by the "Ohio Company," and by the pamphlets which were published in the east, on the advantages of settlements on the Ohio, and people had already begun moving westward, there

came another interruption of perhaps a more serious nature than the first. The Indians formed a conspiracy, and all the various tribes from Lake Michigan to the frontiers of North Carolina, laid by for the time being, their hostile feelings and uniting under Pontiac, proposed to fall on the whole line of English posts and kill every white man. The voice of this great leader was heard crying in the north: "Why, says the Great Spirit, do you suffer these dogs in red clothing to enter your country and take the land I have given you? Drive them from it! Drive them! When you are in distress, I will help you." This voice, however, was audible only to the ear of the red man. The whites were pressing their way farther and farther into the western country with the utmost confidence and satisfaction; but during this time the Indians were making active preparations for war, and were gathering together in various parts of the country, waiting for the word of their great leader. At last the command was given, and the Indians everywhere fell upon and captured the white traders, took their goods from them, and murdered more than a hundred. Nine of the English forts yielded instantly to the Indians who had all along made friendly pretensions. In Western Virginia more

than 20,000 of the settlers were driven from their homes. The three most important English forts, however, did not yield to the first, though sudden, attack of the red men, nor could they be conquered by a siege, however well conducted and long continued, and at the close of 1763, Forts Detroit, Pitt, and Niagara, were still in the hands of the English. The Indians having united mainly for immediate success, became disheartened at their failure to take these forts. The old jealousies and enmities began to revive among them, and one by one the tribes deserted Pontiac, who was left with but a few followers.

The Indians having thus failed in their plans, and being disorganized, the various tribes were anxious for peace. In 1764 the English government sent two men to restore peace in the west: General Bradstreet being ordered to Lake Erie, and Colonel Bouquet to the tribes on the Ohio. Peace was concluded at Detroit, August 21st, and on the Muskingum November 9th, the Indians agreeing to return all prisoners, and protection of their lands was guaranteed them by the government. In the year 1765, all that lay beyond the Alleghanies, with the exception of a few forts and some French settlements on the Wabash, Illinois, and Kaskaskia, was yet wilderness. In 1766, as

white settlers were again crossing the mountains in greater numbers, which did not please the Indians, it was deemed necessary to fix the boundary line which had been spoken of, and which should divide the ceded land from the Indian lands. This was effected at Stanwix, October 24th, 1768. In this treaty the line which extended from the mouth of the Tennessee River, up the Ohio and Alleghany, as far as Kittaning, was fixed. Thus all the land south of the Ohio was ceded to the British, and on this treaty rests the title, by purchase, to Kentucky, Pennsylvania, and Western Virginia.

Hitherto all efforts to settle the Ohio valley were directed to those portions lying north of the Ohio River. Kentucky was practically unknown to the whites, although Dr. Walker had in 1747 or 1750, been among the mountains in the eastern part. Dr. Connolly is said to have had some acquaintance with the lands south of the Ohio, and it is probable that Gist, who was sent to explore the western lands in 1751, had passed through the central portion along the Kentucky River. The reasons why the Ohio valley remained unknown for so long a time are very clear. We know that the southern portion of Ohio and the whole of Kentucky were uninhabited by Indians.

One reason for this undoubtedly is that this tract of land was disputed ground among them. As we have seen, the Iroquois had invaded and owned this territory prior to 1680, and even claimed it at a later date when they placed it under England. It is likely that the Iroquois were feared by all the western tribes until the formation of the Miami Confederacy, which occupied a portion of Ohio. After this, other strong tribes, such as the Shawnees, also entered and occupied portions of Ohio, but Kentucky was not inhabited by Indians, but was used by them as a common hunting ground. We must also keep in mind that the earliest explorers were the Indian traders and these, as is natural, sought out those tracts which were inhabited by the Indians, and thus Kentucky remained for a long time unexplored while Ohio was better known.

After the treaty, however, by which the Indians ceded all their lands south of the Ohio—their favorite hunting grounds—to the English, those who had before been active in exploring and settling western lands went again to work. Among these were George Washington and a London merchant by the name of Walpole. While these men were at work organizing companies for the purpose of occupying the ceded territory, some

other men entirely unknown to them, took steps which actually resulted in its settlement. The first actual explorer of these lands was Colonel James Smith. He heard in 1766 of the purchase of the lands in question from the Indians, and having conversed with them in regard to the land, which they told him was a large tract of rich land, he concluded to take a trip westward for the purpose of exploring that country. He, in company with several other gentlemen, explored pretty thoroughly the valleys of the principal rivers of Kentucky. The persons who followed Smith were traders who came from North Carolina by the Cumberland Gap. It is probable that they sought by this way to reach the Cherokees and other southern Indians with whom they had been trading for some time. It appears that they afterward journeyed northward along the Kentucky River, crossed the Licking, and went to the mouth of the Scioto, perhaps to trade with the Indians north of the Ohio. In those times, John Finley was also engaged in trading with the Indians from Ohio, who had been hunting in the central portion of Kentucky. On his return to North Carolina, he described the country to Daniel Boone, who, on the 1st of May, 1769, in company with five companions, began to cross

the mountains for the west. This party was led by Finley. They did not always remain together, however, as we hear of Boone being alone a great part of the time. He explored the entire central portion of what now forms the State of Kentucky. His remaining for so long a time undiscovered by the Indians, who continued somewhat hostile and jealous, was perfectly miraculous, though he was afterwards in captivity but succeeded in making his escape in a very remarkable manner. In 1771 he and his brother returned to North Carolina, and was detained there until the year 1773, when he sold his farm, took his family, and in company with five other families, started for the west. This company was increased by a party of forty men at Powell's valley, on the east side of the Cumberland mountains. While attempting to cross the mountains, however, they were attacked by a party of Indians, and six of the emigrants were killed and another wounded ; but they succeeded in repulsing the Indians without much difficulty and then turned back, going as far as Clinch River.

During this time people were rapidly going to the west, both as settlers and as explorers and hunters. This did not please the Indians, for they saw that their best hunting grounds were

being rapidly taken from them. They began to oppose the settlers in many ways, and at last forbid their locating south of the Ohio entirely. During the summer of 1773, when Thomas Bulitt with a large party descended the Ohio, he heard that the Indians would not permit any settlements in the south unless their hunting grounds were left undisturbed. This party having descended the river, separated, part ascending the Kentucky River, while the remainder went on as far as the falls and laid out the plat of Louisville. As settlement went on the Indians' hatred grew stronger and became more bitter, and during the earlier part of the year 1774 many murders were committed by both Indians and frontiersmen, until by the middle of the same year a bloody war was again at hand. The principal battle of this war was fought at Point Pleasant between General Lewis and the Delawares, Iroquois, Wyandottes and Shawnees, under their most noted chiefs. The conflict was long and severe, but Lewis finally gained the victory, and, the Indians seeing that their struggle against the whites was a useless one, sought for peace. This was granted them in a treaty at Camp Charlotte, the Indians agreeing not to hunt south of the Ohio river.

Immediately after this settlement and surveying were again actively recommenced in Kentucky, and Daniel Boone, who had served in the war under Lewis, was one of the first to re-enter the rich valleys of the south, and was in the service of a new land company formed in North Carolina, called the "Transylvania Company." This company purchased from the Cherokees two large tracts of land, which included the greater part of the present State of Kentucky. This transaction, however, was not recognized by the Virginia government, and so these pioneers were again in danger on all sides, for they also learned that a party of settlers lead by Boone were attacked and several killed. Boone's men, however, repulsed the Indians, and marching forward they reached, in April, 1775, a point on the Kentucky River, where they erected a fort and called the place Boonesboro.

The year 1776 was now at hand, and with it the revolution. As the English had dealt with the Indians, taking their land from them without remuneration, except when the latter, finding that complaints and murmurs would not answer, lifted up their tomahawks, so they also dealt with the Americans in those days, exacting from them and burdening them with more than they could

bear. All the interest was concentrated upon the colonies; even that of the Indians, for both parties in that conflict sought their assistance. Because of this the Indians did not molest the settlers in Kentucky for one whole year. From the middle of the year 1775 to the middle of 1776 the Indians made no hunting excursions south of the Ohio. This was not, however, because they wished or intended to keep their agreement to that effect, for in the same year hostilities were renewed to such an extent that many of the Kentucky settlers were driven from their new homes back across the mountains. This year had also its advantages—the other event for which it was remarkable in the history of Kentucky being the recognition of the “Transylvania Company” by Virginia as part of the “Old Dominion.” While much distress was among the colonists of Kentucky during this year, and the woods were full of straggling parties of the northwestern tribes, who had been enlisted in the service of England, and no one outside a fort was safe, yet during this very time the step which was the making of Kentucky was taken by George Rogers Clark, who became truly her founder and the most prominent hero of the west. He

was a Virginian by birth, a surveyor by profession, and had served as major in Dunmore's war in 1774. He was quick of perception, and at once conceived the notion of making Kentucky an independent commonwealth. During the next few years the Kentucky settlers received much annoyance from the Indians, who were continually being urged by English agents to deeds of violence against them. Clark then resolved to conquer the English posts in Illinois so that peace might again be secured to the colonists, and in the latter part of 1777 he opened his plans to Patrick Henry, who was then Governor of Virginia. On January 2, 1778, he received orders to attack the Illinois posts, and between this time and the year 1780 he conquered all these posts, and thus secured peace to the Kentucky settlers. Emigration was now pouring into Kentucky at a rapid rate. In November, 1780, it was divided into three counties, and in October of the following year it was organized. Thus, in 1781 there was many a fine and flourishing settlement in Kentucky, and its inhabitants living comparatively in peace, while in Ohio scarcely a single hut of a white settler was to be found. Here all was yet war and bloodshed. So it went on for a number of years, and it was not until

about the year 1788 that settlement began to be made in Ohio with any prospects for permanence whatever. While settlement went forward during this year, yet the colonists were by no means safe. The Indians, notwithstanding the fact that a number of treaties had been made with them during several of the preceding years, still remained very hostile, and the settlers were frequently endangered by their malicious incursions.

The "Ohio Company" of 1786, which was formed in New England in March of this year, was the first that was authorized by the government to found a colony northwest of the Ohio. An outline of the company was drawn and subscriptions immediately taken. A fund of a million dollars was to be raised for the purchase of lands in the western territory. On March 8th, 1787, General Parsons, General Putnam, and Reverend Manasseh Cutler were chosen directors of the company, and these immediately appointed Dr. Cutler, who then went to New York for the purpose of negotiating with Congress for the desired tract of land. On the 28th of October they closed a contract with the Board of Treasury for this tract, which included a million and a half of acres between the Scioto and the Ohio. In July

of this year, Congress passed an ordinance for the government of the northwest territory, and in December of the same year, John Brown, who was the first representative from the west, was sent to Congress. In November of this same year, the Ohio Company made active preparations to send settlers to the west. The first party of these started, traveling during the winter and in April of 1788, reached the spot they had chosen, which was on the Muskingum, and thus became the real founders of Ohio. This settlement was first known as "The Muskingum," but at a meeting of directors and agents held July 2d, it was named Marietta, in honor of Mary Antoinette. At this time emigration to the west was very great. The commandant at Fort Harmar, which was on the Ohio near the mouth of the Muskingum, reported that between February and June, 1788, no less than 4,500 persons had passed that point. Other settlements were now rapidly forming and other lands granted. Immediately after the New England grant, and the ordinance of 1787, John Cleves Symmes, of New Jersey, applied to the government for a grant between the Miamis, which was given him, and he proceeded at once to take steps which would induce settlers to occupy his land. In August, 1788, Mathias

Denman, Robert Patterson, and John Filson obtained sections of Symmes' land opposite the mouth of Licking River, and agreed to lay out a town, which Mr. Filson, who had been a school-master, was appointed to name. He called it Losantiville, which, when interpreted, means: *ville*, town; *anti*, opposite to; *os*, mouth; and *L*, for Licking. This name was afterwards changed on the 1st or 2d of January, 1790, to Cincinnati, by St. Clair, in honor of a society by that name.

Settlement went rapidly forward, and although there were many dangers and disturbances from the Indians, yet it had gained too firm a hold to be again entirely interrupted. We will now notice briefly in the next chapter, the history of some of the early towns.

## CHAPTER VI.

### HISTORY OF SOME OF THE EARLY TOWNS.

IF we follow closely the accounts of the discovery and settlement of a country, or any particular part of a country, we will see that the leaders in these enterprises are governed by different motives, and have their attention fixed on different objects. We have seen that the first men that entered the west went to those parts which were densely populated, for various purposes, as trade, and also out of religious promptings. The settlers, however, were looking about for the finest land and the most fertile valleys, both of which were of no direct importance to those who preceded them. To both of these classes, however, the water-courses are of great importance. We will always notice that discoverers find their way to the interior of a country by means of its various streams. We have seen that in this country the French explorers made their way westward by the St. Lawrence and the great lakes, thence down the Mississippi, and finally descended also the Ohio from the region of Lake Erie. Likewise the early settlers found it convenient to launch

their boats upon the rivers and allow the current to bear them quietly down to some desirable spot, where they landed and founded the first settlements. The Ohio River and its valley were early known for their beauty. It was long known among the French as "Belle Riviere" (Beautiful River). In connection with the Mississippi and the Alleghany, it forms a remarkable water-course, starting within a few miles of Lake Erie, and ending at the gulf, a distance of 2,400 miles.

When the French first discovered that part of the Ohio between the Mississippi and the mouth of the Wabash, they for a long time identified it with the latter and called it by the same name, which in their mode of spelling was Ouabach, Ouabache, or also Ouabachi. The name by which we know it is its Indian name, and has been variously spelled by early explorers as Oyo, Oio and finally Ohio.

Within the history of the Europeans in this valley the Ohio has a number of times overflowed its banks and filled its valley with destructive masses of water. The first of these great floods occurred in June of 1772, and was one of vast height, and if the valley had then been inhabited as it is now "it would have spread

ruin and destruction over every town and hamlet on its border."

"After General Wayne's treaty with the Indians in 1795, the natives frequently visited the settlement at Marietta for the purpose of trade. Seeing the dwelling houses erected and the improvements making on the bottom lands, the aged Indians, with a shake of the head, would point with their hands to the elevated branches of the sycamore trees on the banks of the river, saying that they had seen the water that high, and at some future day the white man would see it there also. All who heard it at that time believed it to be mere Indian hyperbole, but recent events have proved the Indian legend to be true."—[S. P. Hildreth's "Floods of the Ohio."]

The flood in 1778 was not near so high as that of 1772, but the one that occurred in 1784 was very high again, being very nearly as high as the great flood in 1832, but fortunately the country along the banks was yet thinly settled, and consequently not much damage was done.

For many years after the settlement of Marietta by the second "Ohio Company" in 1788, there was no flood of importance. The first flood that attracted any attention among the settlers of the valley was that of 1809. The water filled some

of the lower streets of Marietta, but did no great damage. In 1813, twenty-five years after Marietta was founded, a very destructive flood occurred. It was caused by snow several feet deep at the headwaters and a general heavy rain. The water rose very rapidly. "In twenty-four hours after the commencement of the rise the water was over the banks, and was rising at the rate of eight inches per hour." This was a very destructive flood, doing a great deal of damage to property. In the flood of 1815, though the water at Marietta stood a little higher than two years previous, the damage was not so great, because the rise was much slower, being only one inch per hour.

The next flood of importance was that of 1832. This winter was an unusually cold one, heavy ice forming on the river and deep snows falling all over the surrounding country. These snows were in the region of Marietta over one foot, and at the headwaters of the river from three to four feet in depth. These were followed by a spell of very warm and rainy weather, and hence this remarkable flood. The rise of the water was very rapid, being twelve inches per hour, and continued until the water stood fifty feet above low water mark at Marietta. This

flood proved a very destructive one to the various towns along the river.

All these floods, however, are comparatively insignificant when contrasted with the recent floods—1883 and 1884. Considering the great amount of property that came within reach of these floods, they were incomparably more destructive than perhaps all the other floods taken together. In that of 1883, the water stood sixty-four feet, five inches above low water mark at Cincinnati. The flood of 1884 occurred in February, and was very much higher than the other. It reached its greatest height on the 14th, the water then being seventy-one feet and three-fourths of an inch above low water mark at Cincinnati.

To refer now briefly to the early history of some of the settlements in the Ohio valley, we will recollect that in that part of the "Old Dominion" west of the mountains, known now as West Virginia, were about the first settlements on the Ohio. We hear of Logstown, "a little village, seventeen miles and a half below Pittsburgh, upon the north side of the Ohio." This was a trading point, and the place where Conrad Weiser was sent in 1748, and where a short time afterwards a treaty was made, relative to forming the first "Ohio Company." The Zanes founded

Wheeling in 1770, and on this site Connolly built a fort in 1774. This fort went by the name of Fincastle until 1776, when, in honor of the Governor of Virginia, it was called Fort Henry. In the neighborhood of this fort were built some twenty or thirty log huts of the settlers, which were all destroyed, besides three hundred cattle by the Indians in the siege of September 26th—November 7th, 1777. Wheeling is ninety-two miles below Pittsburg, and 365 miles above Cincinnati on the river. The population in 1850 was 11,435; in 1860, 14,083; in 1870, 19,280; in 1876, 30,000; and in 1880, 30,737. It is a port of delivery and a great manufacturing city. In this latter direction it has rare advantages. The principal manufacturing establishments are iron and nail mills, glass works, foundries and machine shops. It is the seat of the Wheeling Female College, which was chartered and organized in 1848. Wheeling was made county seat in 1797, incorporated in 1806, and was the capital of the State from the organization of the latter till 1870, when Charleston became the seat of government.

At the treaty of Logstown, in June, 1752, the Indians desired the protection of the British against the French and wished them to "build a fort at once at the fork of the Ohio." This fort they set

about to build in the spring of 1754. During this time the French were busy building forts in the north, on French Creek, and were making active preparations to descend the Alleghany and take possession of the Ohio valley. On the 17th of April of this year, when the walls were but partly finished, the French, under Contrecoeur, floated down the Alleghany "in sixty batteaus and 300 canoes, filled with men, and laden deep with cannon and stores." Contrecoeur, accompanied by a force of a 1,000 men, then commanded Ensign Ward to surrender, which the latter dared not refuse. The French then took possession of the fort and called it Fort Duquesne. Braddock attempted to take this fort in July, 1755, but was defeated, and it was not until November, 1758, that the French abandoned it on Forbes' approach through Pennsylvania, from which time it was called Fort Pitt. As all these various forts formed centres around which the early settlers located, built their log houses, and tilled the soil, so during all these years they had also gathered about this fort until quite a village had risen which was already known as Pittsburg. In 1774, when the dispute arose between Virginia and Pennsylvania, as to the possession of Pittsburg and surrounding country, Dr. Con-

nolly, under command of Lord Dunmore, and in the interest of Virginia, went and took possession of the fort, which had nearly been destroyed, rebuilt it and named it Fort Dunmore.

Although Pittsburg had been long settled and once surveyed, it was not until in March, 1784, that it was again surveyed and regularly laid out by Tench Francis. The following view of Pittsburg is taken from Arthur Lee's journal, who passed through the town in the fall of this same year: "Pittsburg is inhabited almost entirely by Scotch and Irish, who live in paltry log houses and are as dirty as if in the north of Ireland, or even Scotland. There is a great deal of trade carried on, the goods being brought at the vast expense of 45 shillings per one hundred from Philadelphia and Baltimore. They take in the shops money, wheat, flour and skins. There are in the town four attorneys, two doctors, and not a priest of any persuasion, nor church nor chapel. The rivers encroach fast on the town, and to such a degree that, as a gentleman told me, the Alleghany had within thirty years of his memory carried away 100 yards. The place, I believe, will never be very considerable." Notwithstanding this opinion, however, the town increased very rapidly. In 1786, on the 29th of July, the

Pittsburg Gazette was published for the first time. It was incorporated as a borough on the 22d of April, 1794, and as a city March 18, 1816. "In 1817 it contained five glass houses, four air furnaces, 109 stores, eight steam engines in mills, 1,303 houses, 8,000 people, and manufactured 400 tons of nails by steam," (Annals of the West). The abundance of the natural resources of the country surrounding Pittsburg have helped it rise and have made it the great manufacturing city which we now know. The population in 1870 was 86,076, and in 1880 156,389.

We are informed that "in the autumn of 1785 Major Doughty descended the Ohio to the mouth of the Muskingum, and upon the point north of the former and west of the latter river began Fort Harmar," and it was nearly three years later that, as we have already seen, a company of emigrants landed at the mouth of the Muskingum and founded Marietta on the east side of that river. This was the first settlement in Ohio, being made by the second "Ohio Company" in 1788. In 1850 the population was 3,175; in 1860, 4,323, and in 1870, 5,218. Harmar forms part of the town, and with this the population is

7,000. Marietta College, which is located here, was founded in 1835.

The tract of land upon which Louisville is built was surveyed by Thomas Bullitt, under the direction of John Connolly, as early as 1773, and he then also laid out the plat of the town. In the early part of the year 1780 we are told "300 large family boats" arrived at the falls, and in this same year an act was passed establishing Louisville as a town. "In 1784 Louisville contained sixty-three houses finished, thirty-seven partly finished, twenty-two raised but not covered, and more than 100 cabins." It is the principal city of Kentucky, and the county seat of Jefferson County." It is on the Ohio River, about 600 miles below Pittsburg, 400 miles from the mouth of the river, and about 150 miles below Cincinnati. Being situated on the falls of the Ohio, it has received the name of Falls City. It was incorporated February, 1828. The growth of the city since 1810 has been very steady and rapid. The population in 1810 was 1,357; in 1820, 4,012; in 1830, 10,352; in 1840, 21,210; in 1850, 43,194; in 1860, 68,033; in 1870, 100,753; in 1880, 123,758, and in 1887, 185,000. It is very nicely laid out, having wide streets and large squares. Its system of drainage and sew-

erage is excellent, which renders the city very healthy. It is a port of delivery, and an immense shipping business is done, which amounted in 1873 to \$250,000,000. The chief articles of commerce are dry goods, groceries, provisions, tobacco, leather and whisky. It is said to be one of the largest leaf tobacco markets in the world, and shipments are made annually to Germany, England and Canada. Various kinds of manufactured tobacco and cigars are also produced in abundance. The property in 1873 was assessed at \$78,000,000. It has quite a number of colleges. The College of Pharmacy was organized in 1870, and the School of Pharmacy for Women was organized in 1882. The Medical College was organized in 1869. Louisville also has a Female College. In addition to these there are also the Hospital College of Medicine, the Kentucky School of Medicine, and the University of Louisville, which has a medical department.

We have already seen in the preceding chapter how Symmes obtained a large grant of lands between the two Miamis, and how in August, 1788, three men, Denman, Patterson and Filson, obtained a small tract from him opposite the mouth of the Licking River and built there a town, which they named Losantiville, and also how St. Clair,

who was appointed Governor of the Northwest Territory on the 5th of October, 1787, came to this town in January, 1790, and changed its name to Cincinnati. It was Symmes' purpose to found a great commercial city somewhere on his grant, but his notion was that such a city should be located at the mouth of the Great Miami. In February, 1789, he landed at this point, formed his encampment, and by fall of the same year he had his city laid off. This town seemed to improve for a time, but an attack by the Indians upon a party who were going up the Miami in a boat so frightened the inhabitants that a great many left the place. The superior natural advantages of Losantiville over the town at the bend cannot be denied, and the fanciful story which states that Ensign Luce, who was about to build a fort at the bend, being charmed by a black-eyed female, on which account her husband found it expedient to remove to Cincinnati, changed his plans and thought Cincinnati the proper place for the garrison, and that thus "the beauty of a female transferred the commercial emporium of Ohio from the place where it was commenced to the place where it now is," is hardly to be credited.

In July, 1787, the ordinance for the government

of the Northwest Territory was passed, in October St. Clair was appointed Governor of the territory, and in December John Brown, the first representative, was sent to Congress. In December, 1798, the representatives to a general assembly from the various districts of the territory were chosen. This assembly organized in Cincinnati in September, 1799. In 1800, Congress changed the seat of the territorial government, and made Chillicothe the capital of the Northwest Territory. In 1801, however, it was again changed to Cincinnati.

This city is about 466 miles below Pittsburg, and about 500 miles from the mouth of the Ohio. Hamilton County was organized in 1790, and Cincinnati was made county seat. It was incorporated as a city in 1814. In 1816, the first steamboat was built in Cincinnati. Fort Washington, which so much furthered the early growth of the city, was situated between Lawrence and Ludlow, and Pearl and Fourth streets.

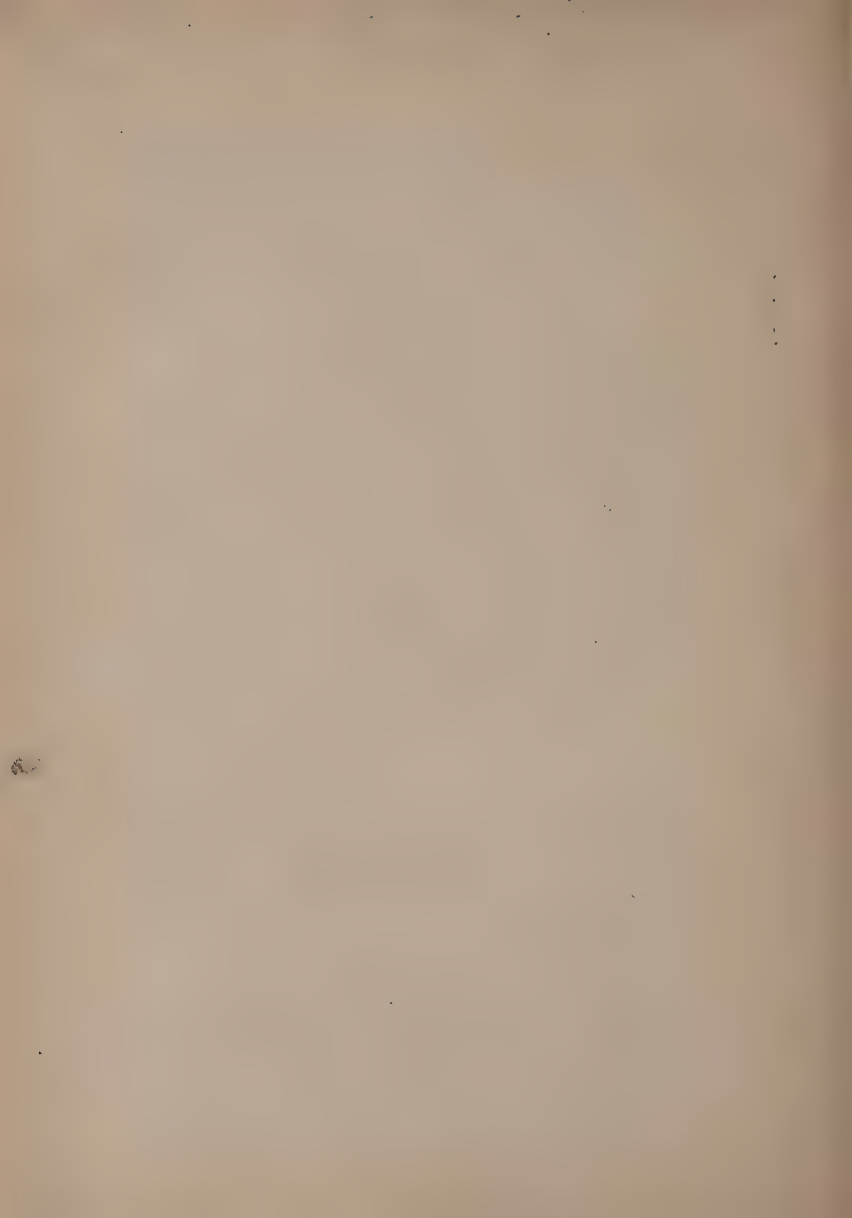
The population increased very rapidly after Wayne's victory over the Indians in 1795. In 1800 it was 750; in 1810, 2,540; in 1820, 9,602; in 1830, 24,831; in 1840, 46,338; in 1850, 115,436; in 1860, 161,044; in 1870, 210,335; in 1880, 255,139; and in 1887, 300,000.

There are here quite a number of colleges and schools of higher education. The following is a list of the principal ones, with the dates of their organization: The Miami Medical College, 1852; Ohio Medical College, 1820; Cincinnati College of Medicine and Surgery, 1851; Cincinnati Normal School, 1868; Bartholomew English and Classical School, 1875; Cincinnati Wesleyan College, 1842; Hebrew Union College, 1873; Cincinnati University, 1873; St. Xavier College, 1831; St. Joseph's College, 1871. Besides these there are a great many others, such as music schools, the most important of which is the College of Music of Cincinnati, founded in October, 1878.

As already stated elsewhere, this city was named in honor of the society of "the Cincinnati," which was founded by the officers of the Revolutionary army after the peace of 1783. "Its object was to commemorate the success of the revolution, and perpetuate sentiments of patriotism, benevolence and brotherly love, and memory of hardships experienced in common." The original draft of the constitution was made by General Knox. In order that the society may continue to exist, the constitution provides that the "eldest" of the "male posterity" of the original members, may become members of it.

This, however, is subject to the consideration whether they be "judged worthy to become its supporters and members." In 1787, Washington was elected President-General, and was re-elected every three years for the rest of his life.







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